

**THE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS**

NEW-WORLD EDUCATION SERIES

The Public Administration of American Schools

BY **Van Miller** AND **Willard B. Spalding**

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

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To ALFRED DEXTER SIMPSON
a Great Teacher

An Introductory Note from the Authors

We are concerned with Americanism, its preservation and improvement. Americanism is no readily sketched stereotype. It is based on the value of individual differences in a social setting of good will and concern. It is based on belief in the unique potential of each individual and on devotion to the equal rights of all human beings. Its central consideration is the human individual, but that consideration must be a self-accepted responsibility of each person if it is to be socially effective. Each one best maintains his own freedom and opportunity through his concern for the freedom and opportunity of all others. As George Zook put it:

In our philosophy of life the individual¹ is the center of our concern. It is *his* protection, *his* freedom, *his* development, *his* welfare, toward which we are striving. Other societies may exist to glorify the state and, if possible, to dominate the world, or, in fact if not in name, to make absentee landlords comfortable, or to set up totalitarian regimes where the individual's freedom is sacrificed for a few incidental material benefits. Not so, America. We are committed to the philosophy that what is not good for the individual is not good for our country.¹

The American system of government is neither dependent upon devotion to a royal family nor upon a common national background. It

¹ George Zook, "Education for One World," *American Education Faces the World Crisis* (American Council on Education, 1950), p. 8. Used by permission.

depends entirely upon the free choices of capable and independent individuals who are also concerned with the hopes and problems of each other. The system's checks and balances prevent any person or group from seizing and maintaining control for long. Such a system is held together by a common instrumentality for acting upon its concern about the fullest development of all individuals. Without such instrumentality individuals are likely to take advantage of freedom for their own interests and thus endanger the very existence of freedom. Without such instrumentality they are likely to be bound together only when their freedoms or their very lives are threatened.

The public schools of America have developed as a major device to hold the American system together. They were already in the making when our beliefs were phrased in a Declaration of Independence and in a Federal Constitution. Our schools take us beyond verbal expressions of belief in the real importance of each individual since they are an organized way of doing something about that belief. They represent the service of society to the ideal that each person has unique potential. This ideal and the service provided by the schools are so interdependent as to strengthen each other. The schools' interest and action in developing individuals to their best provide a better basis for a common loyalty than does the need to escape threats and insecurity. Such a basis is positive and forward-looking.

Schools are important to American democracy as a means of indoctrinating young people with this kind of national loyalty, and they are equally important because democracy is a form of government requiring an educated citizenry. But the schools have much greater significance than that. They are the instrumentality through which each citizen can do something about his responsibility for the improvement and well-being of all others and thus through practice strengthen his devotion to this ideal. The strength of such common concern for humankind is the very heart of our way of life. As each citizen joins his fellows in responsibility for the schools, he serves and develops this common interest in continuously achieving a better tomorrow through fullest development of the finest qualities in individuals throughout the country. Such a common goal is no dead end. It is ever-extending and self-regenerating.

A dead end will be reached if the whole citizenry fails in desiring and bearing responsibility for the schools of America. Therefore, this book is addressed both to prospective teachers and school administrators and

to American citizens in general. It is addressed to teachers and school administrators to help them realize the vital importance of avoiding usurpation of the whole responsibility for school control, and to other citizens so that they will not let this happen.

We, the authors, have tried to keep constantly before us the fact that America's schools are the responsibility of the total citizenry and to give attention to the ways in which that responsibility is being and can be appropriately borne.

Hence, this book is not intended as an operational guide for school administrators. It is concerned with basic understanding and with generalized procedures. The reader should bear in mind that the illustrations and specifics are given as examples rather than as prescriptions or recipes. With sufficient understanding and with moral commitment to the key importance of our schools, citizens together with professional teachers and administrators will develop the prescriptions most desirable in each situation. Since this is not a manual for the school superintendent, the emphasis has not been on trying to cover completely all aspects of school administration but rather on uncovering sufficiently the problems, the approaches to solutions, and some emerging hypotheses.

To accomplish this purpose the material has been prepared in three parts. In Part One, Public Education in Our American Culture, the reader is invited to take an overview of our American schools with attention to their cultural role, their complexity, their activities, their problems, and the milieu in which they exist. In Part Two broad treatment is given to the decision-making and execution necessary in the operation and improvement of the schools. This part is written in terms of what can and should be done and on what basis it should be done rather than in terms of who should do it. Throughout Part Two we have kept the emphasis on the total task of school operation charged to each community. In Part Three we have invited the reader to consider the specialized functions and methods of the professional administrator as he helps communities operate schools, improves the administration of schools, and improves the democratic process itself.

VAN MILLER

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PART ONE

Public Education in Our American Culture

The schools are an organized means of inducting the young into our culture. Such an operation poses constantly the question, "What culture?" Education helps to answer such questions. Thus the schools serve continuously as an agency by which society examines itself and redirects itself in terms of what it determines to be good.

The public school is a complex institution. It is concerned with a broad range of individual differences and a wide span of ages. It provides a variety of activities and requires a diversified staff and many facilities. It achieves an institutional unity through its constancy in serving central purposes.

The school is an integral part of a local community. The common elements which permeate both the school and the community it serves are numerous and strong. The kind of community and the quality of its decisions about education are the dominant influence on the school. And the influence of the good school changes the nature of the community.

A school district is a unit of government. As a governmental agency it has much in common with all other governmental agencies. Education is affected by the activity of civil government and the other units of governmental agencies at all levels.

A school is made up of people. It exists for people. It is influenced by people. This influence is most forceful even though not always readily observable when it is exerted through organizations of people.

In the interaction of the school with the local community, with governmental agencies, with organized groups there are many recurring decisions to be made. These are made in the classroom, in the local attendance unit, in the local community, at the county level, at the state level, and sometimes at the level of federal government. But there are also persisting problems which remain to be worked out by the profession of education.

The material in Part One presents information, ideas, opinions, and theories about public education in American culture. It describes the setting in which administrative leadership takes place and some of the forces with which it interacts. It endeavors to encourage the reader to think about the school and the community as parts of a whole and to see the problems of education as part of the problems of communities and of our social order.

The Function of the Schools in Our Culture

CHAPTER 1

On April 14, 1642, the General Court of the Company of Massachusetts Bay in New England, "taking into consideration the great neglect of many parents and masters in training up their children in learning and labor and other implements which may be profitable to the common wealth, do hereby order and decree that in every town ye chosen men appointed for managing the prudential affairs of the same shall henceforth stand charged with the care for the redresse of this evil . . . and for this end they, or the greater number of them, shall have the power to take account from time to time of all parents and masters and of their children, concerning their calling and impliment of their children, especially of their ability to read and understand the principles of religion and the capital laws of this country."

This section of the earliest colonial law regarding education makes clear that the members of the court considered education a necessary part of the process by which the young were trained to take their place in the social order of the day. Work which added to the common wealth, faith which strengthened the established church, and obedience to the laws of the state were at the heart of that society. They were accepted without question by almost all of the colonists. It was evident to all that children must be taught to read, to understand the principles of church and state, and to carry on a trade if they were to fit into the life of the people.

Shortly after this, the towns of Dedham and Roxbury established free schools to educate their youth. In Roxbury the inhabitants signed an

agreement which included the following: "Whereas, the inhabitants of Roxburie, in consideration of the religious care of posteritie, have taken into consideration how necessarie the education of theire children in Literature will be to fit them for public service, both in Church and Commonwealthe, in succeeding ages. They therefore unanimously have consented and agreed to erect a free schoole in said Towne of Roxburie and to raise Twenty pounds per annum to the Schoolemaster"

This ancient action, like the one of the General Court, was intended to insure the proper induction of the young into the culture of the times.

Schools Have a Purpose

From these early beginnings, up to the present time, there has been rather a general consensus of both laymen and educators that public schools were set up to assist the home, the church, and other agencies and institutions in the task of helping the young to learn the customs, organization, language, business, purposes, and values of the total society. At the end of the first world war a commission of the National Education Association reported as follows:

The purpose of democracy is so to organize society that each member may develop his personality primarily through activities designed for the well-being of his fellow members and of society as a whole

Consequently, education in a democracy, both within and without the school, should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends

This commission, therefore, regards the following as the main objectives of education: 1. Health. 2. Command of fundamental processes. 3. Worthy home-membership. 4. Vocation. 5. Citizenship. 6. Worthy use of leisure. 7. Ethical character.¹

Here again, as in the earlier example, we find that the purposes of the public school are conceived in relation to what is needed to fit the young into the life of the times.

Another report, made by the Educational Policies Commission in 1946, has this to say:

¹ Report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education," U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education Bulletin 35, (1918), pp. 9. 10-11.

Educational Objectives Depend on a Scale of Values. Every statement of educational purposes, including this one, depends upon the judgment of some person or group as to what is good and what is bad, what is true and what is false, what is ugly and what is beautiful, what is valuable and what is worthless, in the conduct of human affairs. Objectives are, essentially, a statement of preferences, choices, values. These preferences are exercised, these choices made, these values arranged in a variety of ways

The purposes of schools and other social agencies are not 'discovered' as a prospector strikes a gold mine. They evolve; they reflect and interact with the purposes which permeate the life of the people. In each of the phases of individual and social living, there are elements which people commend, others which they condemn. Such judgments are based, in the last analysis, on moral standards or ideals. That which, out of their intelligence and experience, the people declare to be good, they will attempt to maintain and perpetuate for the benefit of their children and their children's children. They strive through education to transmit what they think is good to all the generations to come

A society which exalts force and violence will have one set of educational aims. A society which values reason, tranquility, and the paths of peace will have another and very different set. Again, a society which worships its ancestors and blindly reverences the past will have and does have different educational purposes from a society which recognizes the necessity for adjustment and change. The educational objectives in each case rest on certain ideas of good and bad, but these ideas are different in each case and lead to aims for the schools which differ from one another as the day from the night.

Educational purposes, then, are a form of social policy, a program of social action based on some accepted scale of values. Since the application of these values varies from place to place and even from day to day, detailed purposes of education can never be developed so as to be universally applicable and perpetually enduring. Constant study and revision are required to keep them meaningful to the people and effective in the schools. Only the broadest lines of policy can have more than temporary and local application, but these controlling principles are of prepotent importance. Everything, in fact, depends upon them

Educational objectives, if they are to be of significant practical value, must not be established in defiance of known or ascertainable facts concerning the economic and social situation . . . it is and as it may become. The values cherished by individuals and by social groups are the product of experience and may be changed by the same force which created them. In this realm every effort must be made to substitute tested truth for ignorance and hunches. Every major change in the structure of human society from tribal government to nationalism and from chattel slavery to capitalism has been accompanied by profound changes in educational purposes. A clear

and exact knowledge of the status and direction of any culture is indispensable to a statement concerning its educational purposes.²

In short, public education has always been established to help children and youth to know, understand, and adjust to the relationships characteristic of the culture. This purpose has been stated many times in many different ways by many persons. It is found in many laws in every state of the Union. It is found so readily and so commonly that restating it seems to be an unnecessary reiteration of the obvious. But it is necessary that the proposition be examined critically to discover what it means, if it is to guide the administrator in his leadership of public schools.

The Nature of a Culture

Critical examination of the proposition that public schools exist in order to induct the young into the culture must necessarily turn first to the question: "What is the nature of the culture which the young will enter?" It is at precisely the point of the answer to this question that much of the present confusion about the educational program is found. For if no widely accepted answer can be found, there can be no widely accepted educational program, and what is done in one school will bear little relation to what is done in another. Young people will be trained toward divergent and frequently opposing ends, and the culture will tend to be disintegrated by the operation of the very institution established to perpetuate and improve it.

Smith, Stanley, and Shores, in their *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development*, state that a culture always consists of two parts:

The first is a group of elements that are more or less persistent and unchanging, consisting of mutually compatible, though not always logically consistent, universals and specialties. It tends on the whole to be stable, for it consists of those elements that have been tried out and accepted. Additions and deletions are, therefore, apt to be met with resistance. The second part of a culture is a region surrounding these central elements and comprising the unintegrated and frequently inconsistent alternatives or cultural innovations, which are candidates for admission to the central body of cultural content.³

² Educational Policies Commission, *Policies for Education in American Democracy*, Book III, "The Purposes of Education in American Democracy" (National Education Association of the United States, 1946), pp. 157, 158, 159. Used by permission.

³ B. Othanel Smith, William O. Stanley, and J. Harlan Shores, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development*, p. 9. Copyright 1950 by World Book Company.

In the first group of elements of a culture, the more or less persistent and unchanging ones, will be found such basic ways of acting as the relationships among members of a family, approved ways of earning a living, covering parts of the body with clothes, methods of transportation, ways of using language, amusements, and others. Out of these relatively common acts comes a system of ideas about what is good to do. By them each individual can judge what choice to make when he is confronted with more than one way of acting. Many times this system of ideas is not found in a stated code. More often it is made up of the learnings that have come from the home, from other persons with whom the individual associates, from institutional contacts, and from formal education. To a very large extent in a stable culture they have become part of the personality of individuals. In such a culture choices are made rather easily, and often without much conscious examination of the alternatives.

In the second group of elements in a culture, the unintegrated and frequently inconsistent alternatives or cultural innovations, will be found ways of doing which are not accepted widely. Among these in the United States are the process of collective bargaining, the acts of government in relation to labor-management disputes, the place of television in the esthetics, exposing parts of the body, the role of women in politics and business, and similar practices and situations carried on by and involving substantial portions of the people in one way, and other substantial portions of the people in other ways. Choices in these areas are difficult choices. They may be made unconsciously by members of a group who have developed ways of behaving acceptable to the group, and so have a particular system of ideas that can be used in making judgments. As a matter of fact, many such groups have developed in the United States, so that it is possible to state with some accuracy that there is a point of view toward labor-management disputes which is the Chamber of Commerce point of view, a second which is that of the Congress of Industrial Organizations, a third which is that of the American Federation of Labor, a fourth which is that of the United Mine Workers, a fifth, that of the Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service, and several others characteristic of less powerful groups. A member of one of these groups finds himself unwittingly in conflict with a member of another because each has chosen ways of acting in accord with the system of ideas characteristic of his own group.

Conflicts about the appropriate choice of action among alternatives and innovations are characteristic of all cultures, but the degree and ex-

tent of the conflict vary from culture to culture. In general, when the central core of the culture, made up of the relatively persistent and unchanging ways of living, is large when compared with the number of alternatives, the conflicts are less numerous and less severe. When, on the other hand, the number of alternatives is large in relation to the number of elements in the core, conflicts tend to be prolonged, numerous, and severe.

There is general agreement among students that the current American scene reveals many conflicts which give promise of lasting for some time and which are becoming increasingly severe. There is also general agreement that this situation exists because of the many innovations brought into the culture by technological advances which present or create many alternative ways of acting. These alternatives have not been assimilated into the core of the culture, nor can they be until there is very widespread acceptance of a single choice in respect to each. America's changed status in international affairs is also a cause of conflicts in the culture. Under pressure of our international relations we profoundly affect such basic considerations as the freedom of the individual.

To approach the problem of culture conflicts in a slightly different manner, a people acquires a system of values about good and evil, right and wrong, desirable and undesirable, ugly and beautiful, truth and falsity, when it has developed widely accepted ways of choosing when confronted with particular sets of alternatives. These ways are rarely stated. They are, rather, the articles of faith by which man unconsciously guides his daily living. They may be stated or brought into the consciousness when he is faced with a difficult choice, or when he is opposed by someone who seeks to direct his choices into ways of action not consistent with his system of values. It is this latter kind of opposition that is believed to be characteristic of our times. When a person has not considered the possibility of a choice being wrong, because he is choosing unconsciously, he is always confused when he finds that his action is not approved by other persons. When several people are faced with the need of choice in respect to the same problem and each selects a different way of action on the basis of faith, the resulting conflict and confusion are very great. This is particularly true in areas of human activity where little or no thought is given to the possibility that alternatives, other than the one to which the individual gives allegiance, may not only exist but also be supported by large numbers of persons. Under such conditions

many persons will typically reiterate their choice with increasing vigor, rather than consider the values which underlie other possible choices. Communication between persons, and often between large segments of society, breaks down under these conditions. There is substantial evidence that this breaking down has already progressed to such an extent that a crisis is at hand, not only in our American culture but in other cultures as well—for example, those of the Oriental world.

This crisis arises out of the increased compartmentalization of the society of the United States (due to the number and strength of organized groups), the increase in the number of specialized kinds of work brought on by advances in technology, and the development in both organizational groups and occupational groups of divergent value-systems. These three characteristics of the culture of our nation underlie and contribute to the persistence and the vehemence of many conflicts. They are the main factors in the confusion of the people about what to do about social progress. They are at the base of much present disagreement about the role of public education in these times.

When there is significant disagreement about what is good, true, right, desirable, and beautiful, there can be no common understanding of the nature of the culture into which the young are to be inducted by the school. Some persons claim, for example, that the culture includes an economy of free enterprise, some that its economy is a corporate one, some that it is one of individual enterprise, some that it is one controlled by the government, and some that it is controlled by monopolistic unions. Each seeks to get the schools to accept its point of view. Each believes that the young should be prepared for induction into and perpetuation of the culture it envisages.

The Schools and Conflicts in the Culture

The professional educator, and most particularly the administrator, whose position calls for him to exercise leadership, is at a loss as to the point of view he should take and the direction in which he should lead. His point of view and the direction of his leadership are found in the realistic answer to the question raised earlier: "What is the nature of the culture which the young will enter?" The preceding paragraphs described some of the most significant aspects of the culture of the United States.

It is a culture in which there are widespread compartmentalization, increasing occupational specialization, powerful organizations with conflicting value systems, and a large number of alternatives relative to the number of universals. It is a culture characterized more by conflict than by agreement, more by controversy than by mutual understanding, and by many choices of ways of acting rather than by a few. Public education, if it is to be effective in achieving its main purpose, must develop purposes, programs, and techniques which will produce in the young the skills, abilities, attitudes, appreciations, and understandings which will enable them to live well in the kind of culture which exists. And living well in a culture in a time of crisis necessarily involves acting to reduce the crisis, for it is only in this way that personal and social stability is created.

When public schools recognize that induction of the young into the culture is both the basis for their existence and the major source of their objectives, both the culture and the schools become better. Just as a parent who tries to do his best in rearing his children is compelled to think beyond his own times, his own interests, and his own conveniences, so an administrator who seeks to lead a public school toward realizing its purposes must think likewise. And he must get others to have vision of the power of education for the public good. When the people within a community have widespread understanding that schools do make life better and have faith in the good which comes from education, schools do improve.

The research sponsored by Paul Mort in the schools making up the Metropolitan School Study Council shows clearly that differences among them in the quality of education were due, in large measure, to the extent to which the public understood what the schools were doing and had faith in the power of education. While this is extremely significant for the educational leader, it is not wholly surprising. What men strive for they tend to reach. Wherever communities have begun to strive for improvement in their economic, cultural, moral, social, and political life through the use of public education, it is reasonable to expect that improvement will occur. They will begin to have the kind of education that will induct the young most successfully into the culture.

It would be inappropriate in a mere portion of a chapter to attempt to spell out in detail the kind of education that will successfully induct the young into a culture that is passing through a crisis. But no intelligent approach to the problems of educational leadership can omit the broad

purposes and scope of education. The administrator of a public school or of a system of schools needs to understand what education will work and what will not ("working" being defined as effective induction of the young into the culture) if his leadership is to be good. He must know in some detail what persons do when they adjust to the exigencies of conflict in such ways as to resolve conflict and to reconstruct the opposing systems of ideas so that widely accepted agreement on an appropriate choice of action may eventuate.

Reconstruction of opposing systems of ideas or of values involves careful analytical examination of each system and of the proposals for action made by its devotees. If the issue under examination is that of labor-management relations, for example, the school should become familiar with proposals made by the Chamber of Commerce, the American Federation of Labor, the National Association of Manufacturers, the Congress of Industrial Organizations, and whatever other groups are trying to influence the people.

But understanding of the proposals is not enough. Each proposal arises out of a system of values. These may be implicit in the many actions of the members of particular organizations, explicit in the publications of these organizations, or found in a mixture of the two. Schools should be encouraged to probe deeply into the actions of organized groups in order to discover what each believes to be good, true, and desirable. These values should be compared in order to understand points of agreement and points of difference, for any reconstruction of the systems in which they are found must expand the area of common agreement and diminish the area of disagreement. As such attempts at reconstruction of values take place widely in the schools, the central core of the culture may be expected to increase in size and the number of alternatives to decrease.

A Choice of Unifying Alternatives

A critical examination of proposals and of the value judgments that underlie them calls for criteria by which the school can determine which elements in each are good and which are not. These criteria, in effect, constitute a higher system of values. What is this higher system? How is it discovered? What is the relation of public education to it?

These are important questions for the educational leader to consider.

In the long run, education always makes changes in the moral character of the young. It always indoctrinates. What it indoctrinates may come from the diverse personal convictions of teachers, the less diverse opinions of authors and publishers of textbooks, the chance results of unplanned relationships within the school, or from other sources. If the character of the young is an incidental and accidental product of the public schools, the crisis in our culture may be expected to deepen and widen, since there will be little agreement about what is good. One of the great tasks of educational leadership is to secure wide acceptance by teachers, students, parents, and the general public of a system of ideals which can be the basis for selecting what is to be done by the school. And this is a most difficult task.

As is readily observed, it is the absence of consensus about what is good that leads to much of the present conflict. It is equally obvious that the crisis will end when consensus is achieved. To what focal point can the school draw opposing points of view?

Education of the young can be directed toward maintaining the culture as it is, to perpetuating the *status quo*. In a stable society this is often the main purpose of the school. There have been periods in the past when education in the United States was properly directed toward this end. At present, however, education to perpetuate what is would prolong the present division of the people. It would intensify the bitterness between conflicting parties. It would increase the divergence of opinions about what is good. This would be undesirable, both for the school and for society.

Education of the young can be directed toward the establishment and subsequent perpetuation of a stable society in which all differences are eliminated. In order for this to happen, some group must become powerful enough to compel widespread acceptance of its system of values. Such compulsion has occurred in other nations. The dictatorships of Japan, Germany, and Italy are examples of this in the recent past. In these nations the schools were instruments of the state and set up programs of education intended to maintain the dictatorship in power without change. It is probable that the same relation between school and state exists in Russia, Spain, and Argentina today.

Education of the young can be directed toward the continuous improvement of society. This has been the unrecognized purpose of much

of the educational program in the United States. In the field of the sciences, for example, great emphasis has been placed upon the development of new and better ways of doing things. While this emphasis has been almost devoid of stated social implications, the hard fact is that improvement in technology does raise the standard of living of many persons and so brings about some improvement in society as a whole. At the same time that it does this, it creates many new social problems. The lack of equal emphasis upon the desirability of new and better human relationships makes the solution of these problems very difficult. They will be solved when the people learn to consider alternative solutions and choose among them. Progress depends, then, upon the existence of alternatives. And the existence of alternatives always means some degree of conflict among those who propose them. If education is to produce a progressively improving society, it must recognize that the persistence of many alternatives and widespread conflict also prevents progress. Unless there is enough consensus about enough ways of acting to insure a relatively stable culture, there can be no careful consideration of the relative merits of alternative ways of acting. When divisions among the people are many and serious, each section tries to gain power in order to reinforce its ideas rather than to examine all proposals in order to select the best one.

Of these three alternatives for education, the last that of progressive social improvement, offers the best opportunity for the development of a focus toward which the schools can draw opposing points of view. Through it there can come a reduction in, but not an elimination of, conflict. Through it alternatives can be reduced in number and universals increased so that the core of our culture will remain relatively stable. Through it there can be a critical examination of proposals and the selection of the best in order to improve the life of man. Education toward the end of cultural reconstruction is conservative in the sense that it preserves all that is good in the old. It is progressive in that it seeks to add those new actions that are good. It is moral in that it rejects all that is bad in old and new alike. The school administrator will be wise if he uses his leadership to develop education toward these ends.

The Basis for Choice

As has been pointed out, the selection of one among many alternative ways of acting is always based upon some type of judgment about values. In suggesting that the third alternative is the best for education in the United States of America, the authors have made a value judgment. When schools educate the young to examine proposals and value systems, they will be educating them to make value judgments. What is the system of values which leads the authors to prefer education for social progress and which should also be used by students in deciding which of many ways of doing is best? It is found in the democratic ideal.

The heart of the American value-system is faith in and respect for the common man—that is, for the individual irrespective of his religion, color, occupation, political views, or social position. Respect for the individual does not mean that anyone is to be free to exploit his fellows, whether through the subtle processes of the industrial or economic systems or through the more obvious processes of outright suppression by physical force. On the contrary, respect for the individual may, and in fact does, require that some individuals and groups be deliberately prevented from following social, economic, and political practices harmful to the public. Faith in, and respect for, the common man imply: that the physical and cultural conditions into which an individual is born shall be such as to enable him to develop to his fullest capacity, that an individual shall share in the formulation and fulfillment of the policies and programs under which he shall live and work; that an individual shall not be used as a means to the ends desired by others—or, to put the same idea positively, that the individual shall share in determining the ends he shall serve as well as the means he shall employ; and that an individual shall not be required by social circumstance to live in a state of chronic economic insecurity.⁴

Such a conception of the value system underlying the democratic ideal makes a static society impossible: it insures progressive improvement. It is through his faith in the democratic ideal, his belief in the dignity of the personality of the individual, his respect for the common man, his devotion to freedom, and his conviction that universal brotherhood must come that the school administrator will find the ultimate criteria by which he judges what is good, true, desirable, right, and beautiful. And in using these criteria he will not be alone.

⁴ Smith, Stanley, and Shores, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development*, p. 106. Copyright 1950 by World Book Company.

Although our culture is in a time of crisis because of the division of the people over which choices of alternative ways of acting are most appropriate, the crisis has not yet destroyed all common agreement. There runs through all aspects of American life faith in and adherence to the democratic ideal. Gunnar Myrdal recognizes this when he writes:

Still there is evidently a strong unity in this nation and a basic homogeneity and stability in its valuations. Americans of all national origins, classes, regions, creeds, and colors have something in common: a social ethos, a political creed. It is difficult to avoid the judgment that this "American Creed" is the cement in the structure of this great and disparate nation.⁵

The Task for Educational Leadership

While faith in the democratic ideal is still common, it is threatened by actions and proposals for action which are of almost daily occurrence. In theory, it remains firm and strong. In practice, it is being eroded. Here is the great task and challenge for educational leadership.

In speaking of the agencies which influence the development of the young, many persons use the church, the family, and the school as if they were of equal influence in perpetuating democracy. This is, of course, not true. While the home in which the child grows to maturity has a deep and enduring influence on him as an individual, the nature and direction of the influence result from the caprice of individual parents. There is no degree of uniformity among homes, nor any ready way of getting any degree of uniformity even if it were considered desirable.

Nor does the church exist in this nation as a single agency. There are Methodist churches, Roman Catholic churches, Lutheran churches, Jewish synagogues, B'hari temples, Bhuddist temples, and hundreds of others. Each has considerable influence upon the growth and development of the young. These influences are as diverse as the sectarian doctrines out of which they grow. There is little uniformity among them, and no desirable way of getting ultimate uniformity.

Public education, however, is one means of relating all of the people to each other and to the common life. Education alone can become the

⁵ Gunnar Myrdal, *An American Dilemma* (Harper & Brothers, 1944), p. 3. Used by permission.

force for reconstructing our culture so that the democratic ideal will persist. Where families are many and different, it brings a common way to all children. Where private and sectarian schools exist, it is the public school which affects all of the people. For, as the public school becomes better, as it becomes a vigorous force for good in the local community, it also becomes the model by which other education is judged. Only through its leadership can come the common unity needed so sorely in these times.

Public education can develop a generation of people who will understand the need of evolutionary reconstruction of our culture, who will seek to expand the area of common agreement about the common good, who will have a secure faith in the democratic ideal, and who will judge alternative proposals for action by this ideal. Public education can do all this. Whether it will do it in time to resolve present conflicts and to reduce the tensions which come from them will depend in large measure upon the quality of its leadership. Educational administrators must not fail in discharging this responsibility to their fullest capacity. If they provide the needed leadership, the public schools of the United States of America will become the most effective agent for improvement in our society.

Suggested Reading

Lloyd Allen Cook, *A Sociological Approach to Education* (Second Edition). This, in effect, is a large case book. The cases range from community analysis to analysis of particular levels of schooling such as "campus culture." The major concepts involved in any educational sociology are examined systematically.

Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey, *The School in the American Social Order; the Dynamics of American Education*. An excellent historical treatment of the growth and development of the American school. The authors approach their topic from a cultural orientation, believing a knowledge of the major social forces of the day is necessary to a knowledge of any particular change in the school. One-half of the book is devoted to an analysis of present-day industrial society.

Note: Full publication data for books mentioned here, in the text, and in the footnotes will be found in the Bibliography, page 579.

American Schools in Operation

CHAPTER 2

A description of the American school system in operation is being continuously written as practices in the widely diverse local schools are reported. The American system of education exists as a conglomerate, and the specific reporting of its complete operation would be confusing and pointless. There are few features that approach uniformity, and the extent to which these appear in each local school is dependent upon the size, location, economic status, social consciousness, and governmental organization of the community. One feature frequently cited is the American effort to provide education for all children and youth. This is in keeping with the democratic ideal of providing fullest possible opportunity to each individual. Another feature is the cosmopolitan nature of public education; the schools become a mixing ground for children of various races, religions, and social and economic levels. This is in keeping with the democratic opposition to arbitrary class distinctions.

The unique feature of American education is the control of school operation by local boards of education. This feature is discussed in Chapter 4. It is this feature that keeps schools close to the people so that American schools become more than society's means of inducting the young into the culture. As people bear responsibility for making decisions and providing for the operation of the schools, they continuously review values of and practices in their own ways of living individually and together. Such constant re-evaluation serves as a basis for the continuous improvement of society.

The unique feature of control by local boards of education is also accountable for the variety in American local school systems. Our system of schools is national in that it serves the democratic ideal embodied in and growing out of the Bill of Rights of our federal Constitution. In the preceding chapter the recognition of responsibility for education was noted in a declaration concerning the whole of Massachusetts Bay Colony, but it was also noted that the schools became operative only through the separate actions of individual towns such as that taken by Roxbury. In terms of sheer legal structure there are as many school systems as there are states and territories since public education is dependent upon the basic laws of each state and territory. Schools are state schools within the broad framework of state law. But schools are most commonly held to be local public school systems because they have been so dependent upon the local community for direction and support and approval.

Most Americans have some knowledge of one or more local school systems. Most of them have been enrolled as pupils at some time. Experience as a pupil and his reaction to such experience has conditioned the individuals's notion of what a school is and what it should be. This conception of a school system may have been further modified by observation of schools, by reading about education, and by hearing discussions of public education. But it is not safe to assume that we approach a discussion of school administration with any common agreement as to what a school system is like or as to what the operation of a good school system would be like. Not only have we had but limited experience with the wide variety of schools operating in America, but also few of us have ever considered the systems we did know as complete systems—we have been concerned, rather, with the segment of the system affecting us at a particular time. In order to have some point of reference in considering school administration, it is important to start with an understanding of what an American school system in operation is like. Since it must be assumed that the picture of an operating school system differs from individual to individual, it is only fair that the authors provide a description of what they have in mind as a point of reference for discussing school administration throughout the book.

No attempt will be made in this chapter to classify all of the various kinds of schools in operation and the procedures practiced in the operation of all of them. Nor is any attempt made to derive, by sampling, a "typical" school system. Since the best schools are always in the process

of becoming so, any statement of the writers' conception of what the good school is or does is subject to continuous revision, even on the part of the writers. The description to be offered in this chapter is a composite of what seems good, to the writers, in school systems in operation and in the literature describing what good schools ought to be and to do. Such description is stated not as a prescription to be applied as uniformly as possible in every school district throughout the country, but in order that the reader may know what the writers have in mind when they speak of an effective school system.

General Characteristics of the Good Local School

It should be recognized first of all that, although the school is the educational agency of society, it is not the sole source of educative experiences. Learning takes place in many situations outside of school. Actually, in terms of a total life-time or even in terms of the total hours during the usual school years, the school has direct impact on the pupil for a relatively small portion of the time. Children and youth learn much in the home life, in the neighborhood play group, in Sunday school and church activities, on the streets, in the public parks, in stores and other business establishments, at the movies, from listening to the radio or watching television, from advertising, from newspapers and magazines, from various youth organization activities, through the public library and museums, from the doctor and the dentist. Some of this learning is incidental; much of it is planned. The learning acquired in the gang, in the stores, at the movies, over the radio is largely incidental learning. Few of these out-of-school learning situations are organized for the purpose of operating an educational program. They are organized for the sake of fellowship, for the sake of doing business, for the sake of selling entertainment. Some of the youth programs, church educational programs, and plans of home training are organized education—but organized either to occupy profitably but a small portion of the learner's time or organized basically because of legal and moral responsibility for the learner's behavior. Advertising campaigns may represent very definitely organized educational programs.

Of all educative agents only the school consistently concerns itself with service to the pupil and with the development of his potential. Many of these other agencies are educative to the child through "happenstance,"

but the school exists for the very purpose of human development. The good school does not attempt to provide education in isolation from and indifference to the learning experiences encountered at every turn by the pupil. It seeks, rather, to be the agency which sets all of these learning experiences in proper relationship to each other, and interprets them. The good school is concerned with human development. It views each experience as affecting the total personality of the individual, and for that reason understands that school experiences cannot be separate and apart from other experiences of the pupil. The good school is concerned with human relations and realizes that what is practiced in every social relationship will be what is learned by the pupil. Some common threads of emphasis run throughout the program of the good system and are common to good schools. A few of these are suggested:

First, *the good school is concerned with health.* In helping children and youth take over responsibility for the world of affairs and in improving our culture, good physical and mental health is basic. The interest of the school is not a healing-of-disease interest. It is rather one of maintenance and improvement of health. The school promotes personal cleanliness and civic sanitation. It educates for effective nutrition. It encourages physical exercise and wholesome recreation. It maintains records of growth and development, including the results of physical and dental examinations. It provides or coördinates medical, dental, and psychological services to pupils. It promotes safety. It arranges for immunization from communicable diseases. It gives instruction in the principles of health. This concern for health pervades the good school system, underscoring interest in the welfare of each individual and thus in the improvement of our society.

Second, *the good school is concerned with the relation of learning to use.* Probably people always know more than they use. During the annual commencement season, an educator overheard two business men on a train. One of them remarked that it was too bad all of the young people who would be graduating knew how to use so little of what they had learned. In reflecting on this conversation one might suggest that it would be even better if young people knew how to acquire the knowledge needed for use. No matter how much we know, we frequently meet situations where the success of our action depends upon knowing more than we do. The good school recognizes that there are more facts and principles and skills than any one person can possibly learn, even though each of these is useful in its place. Selection must be made of the content for ~~four~~ ^{educational} purposes.

tional program. In fact, the problem of selecting what to learn is lifelong for each individual. The school must educate the individual in respect to this process of selection.

Some facts, principles, and skills are rather universally used. In our culture it is useful to know the addition facts. A person needs some skill in the manipulation of numbers. Ability to read and skill in language usage are almost universally important. The good school is aware of this body of common content; and in so far as possible it is included in the school program in learning situations where its use serves current purposes of the pupils. The school does not want this content learned as the ritual of our society to be repeated as the password to the next grade level. Such material developed as it served the purposes of individuals, and must be perpetuated only as it does serve such purposes. In this way the continuous effort of the school is on selection, on learning, and on use of content.

Third, *the good school is concerned with developing group consciousness*. The growth of group consciousness and effectiveness is a function of the common learnings and of group participation provided by the school. The job of growing up is continuously concerned with a shifting from the self-centered life of the infant, requiring attention and services from all, to a life of social worthiness acceptable to others and accepting others. The school works to establish the universals which bind our society together. The elementary school is frequently called the common school because virtually all pupils share common experiences and a common content. There is much in common in the entire public school program, and this basis of common language, common number system, common social customs, and understanding of common social institutions provides a basis for socialization. The effective basis for socialization is pupil participation in group activities chosen by the group, planned by the group, and evaluated by the group. The good school knows that pupils improve their behavior in group participation as they experience such participation in situations important to them. The good school will make use of pupil-teacher planning, student councils, class committees, a variety of student activity organizations.

Fourth, *the good school recognizes the importance of individuality*. In promoting group consciousness the school is not attempting to refashion each pupil to the same mold. The good school is concerned with the best development of each individual as a worthy personality. Records are kept which give the school an understanding of the growth pattern of

each individual and of his potential strengths and weaknesses and distinctions. In addition to statistical data the records embody statements and information to attach human personality to the symbols and figures. Guidance services help the pupil understand himself and his opportunities and give him a chance to think through the decisions he must make as he relates himself to these opportunities. The school is concerned with providing exploratory opportunities for the individual so that he may try out his interest and ability in various fields as a basis for better selection. It is also concerned with specialized instruction and services to meet the individual needs of pupils as distinct from the common needs. Such specialized instruction may provide for further development of particular interests in trades or crafts, fine arts, or other fields for vocational and avocational use. Such specialized instruction may also be the special education of the physically or mentally handicapped pupil.

Fifth, *the good school is concerned with the development of value-systems.* There are two ways in which an individual may accept a philosophy. He may repeat it and state that it determines what he will do. He verbally professes it. Or he may live by it so that an observer can tell that he is doing so. In this case his acceptance of the philosophy is behavioral. What he does is changed by his philosophy. If his acceptance is only verbal, changes in his daily living may or may not occur. A complex philosophy like democracy is rarely accepted completely. Most persons will accept part verbally, part behaviorally, and part in both ways. Good schools seek acceptance which is both reflected in behavior and recognized intellectually. They are concerned with the relation of learning to use, but they are also concerned with the relation of behavior to understanding. Awareness of what should be done helps to get it done. Action without knowledge of underlying principles is inadequate. People who live in accordance with the democratic pattern of life in their home community and who can verbalize well the democratic philosophy may still find their pattern of behavior undemocratic as they try to adjust to life in a strange situation.

Good schools endeavor to have students do what is right and understand why it is right so that they can make appropriate value decisions in the different future situations they will encounter. The final test of acceptance of a philosophy is found in action rather than in words. The school is concerned with putting generalizations into words to promote understanding as the basis for future action. This characteristic of educa-

tion applies even more fully to the school itself than it does to the school's concern with individual students and groups of students. The school must be continually concerned with the reasons for doing what it is doing and with the ends it is trying to serve. Schools which adopt practices only because they seem popular or because they are judged to be successful elsewhere may not be good schools, even though the form and pattern of their operation may be similar to that of recognized schools. The significant difference is in whether the school knows for what purpose it is following the procedures used and knows what outcomes are to be achieved through such purposes. One danger in attempting to describe a good school system is that the description will be followed as a prescription for good schools without an understanding of what is good about it for the particular situation. The good school may do what the expert recommends; however, it does so not because the expert recommends it, but because the procedure and the reasons for following it are understood and accepted by the school.

An Overview of the School¹

No attempt is made here to describe a specific school system in operation nor to describe types of schools in operation. Rather, the authors propose to sketch sufficient generalized notions about the operation of good schools so that the reader will understand the construction of good school operation with which the discussion of school administration is approached. This is done for the sake of better understanding rather than in an effort to suggest what procedures should be followed by American schools. It is recognized that the kind of program described does not exist in all its detail in large areas of our country. Much of the program depends upon further reorganization of school districts. In many sections of the country, because of sparsity of population, lack of resources, inappropriate market areas, and other reasons the development of such a

¹ The material in this section is in part an adaptation of material found in such statements as those issued by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, *Education for All American Children*, *Education for All American Youth*, *Educational Services for Young Children*; and such other statements as Cooper and Peterson, *Schools for Young Adolescents*, and Wisconsin Cooperative Educational Planning Program, *Guides to Curriculum Building*, *The Junior High School Level*.

program will be difficult and may not be realized for many years to come.

A school is a complex organization and difficult to describe in detail. In order to picture it more clearly it is necessary to divide it for description.

For Children of Nursery-School and Kindergarten Age

The years covered by nursery school and kindergarten have frequently been called the pre-school years because the American tradition of compulsory education and book-learning has been thought of as starting with the first grade. School services for very young pupils have been extended downward from the first grade with kindergartens being organized first, then nursery schools. We customarily think of the five-year-olds as the kindergarten group and the four-year-olds, and sometimes even the three-year-olds, as the nursery school group. Provision of school services for children of these ages grew out of a real interest both in promoting the democratic ideal through developing social consciousness and in guaranteeing fair opportunity for the protection and growth of each individual personality. What children experience during their early years has a marked effect upon their health and personality throughout life. The good school seeks to establish at an early age agreeable experience in group situations and to conserve and improve the vast potential of basic human resources embodied in individual children.

In many homes young children live democratically and enjoy backgrounds that give them a good start in life. They get enough good food to eat. They have a place to play and children with whom to play. They have the right kinds of toys or other materials for play. They have affectionate adult companionship. They have adequate rest and appropriate medical and dental care. In such homes young children grow in an orderly pattern of mental, emotional, and physical development. If all homes were of this type, the school program for very young children would not be of such importance. At the beginning of the chapter it was noted that the role of the school is not that of assuming the place of all other institutions and agencies influencing the development of the child, but rather one of supplementing and relating the experiences provided by all of these other agencies. The importance of school service to very young children arises from the fact that there are children in every section of the country whose home conditions do not provide for orderly, balanced

growth. There are lonely children, browbeaten children, pampered children, undernourished children, children in neighborhoods so thickly populated that constant friction and irritation exist, children of working parents who are too tired to supply the affectionate companionship they need, children of ignorant parents, children in homes where there is poor health. It is the extension of the democratic ideal through an interest in every human personality that impells the good school to provide school service to the very young.

In tribal life parents were in a position to watch the youngsters of the tribe as a group. They shared knowledge and experience in child-rearing. There was a natural socialization growing out of the organization of life within the tribe. In rural American neighborhoods of an earlier day, when families worked and played and worshipped and went visiting or to ~~work~~ as a family group, there was a similar pattern. Adults could see the young children as a group from time to time and would share knowledge and experience in rearing the young. The nursery school and kindergarten in the good school provide this same opportunity. The school is located close to the homes of the children. It is convenient for the mother to bring the child to school, if need be, and to come as frequently as she wishes to observe the child as one with other children. The tie between parent and child and between home and school is so strong in the case of the very young that it is the logical situation in which to provide for parental education. The nursery school teacher and the staff know how to meet and talk with parents and groups of parents about the nature of child development generally as well as about individual cases.

Young children are active. Therefore, in nursery schools and kindergartens there must be adequate space both indoors and outdoors. There must be provision for a variety of kinds of activities which youngsters can do individually or can share by taking turns, but which do not require much group organization on the part of the children. Ideally, the grounds should provide trees for shade and climbing, a brook or pond for wading and sailing boats, a garden spot, a shallow sand pit for digging, play apparatus for climbing and swinging and sliding, an expanse of grassy slope in the sun, a sheltered, hard-surfaced area for rainy weather. The grounds should be enclosed by fence or hedge to prevent children from wandering to dangerous streets or getting lost. Storage space should be provided for garden tools and other movable equipment. The playground space should be separate from that for other pupils who may

be housed in the same building, and might well be directly accessible from the schoolrooms.

Inside the schoolrooms are ample space and provision for a wide variety of activities. There are tables about which pupils can work in groups or individually. The tables are low enough and solid enough for many kinds of work. The chairs are readily movable so that the children may bring them into a circle or line them up along the wall or place them at the tables. There are toys with which the children can carry on activities of living much as adults do—dolls, buggies, washtubs, ironing boards, telephones, big trucks, carpenter's bench, and tools. There are blocks to build with, clay to mold, recorded music and stories and dances to hear, drums and cymbals and tambourines and other rhythm instruments to play, pictures and books to look at, sand on a table to sift and measure and mold. Wood, cloth, paper, cards, scissors, paste, colors, and other materials are available. The children listen to stories, work and play with all of the materials provided, share the toys as they organize their own play situations with them, tell about the things they have seen or heard, observe growing plants and animals, march and run and dance in time to music, talk about the weather and about safety and about what happens as they go to and from school. Children begin to learn about persons and things. They learn to share the same room and toys and equipment. They experience the relation of arts and music and books and nature and science and physical conditioning to the total pattern of living.

Because the school is concerned with promotion of health, attention is given to rest and diet and physical examinations. If the school is in a neighborhood characterized by families from which both parents work during the day or in a rural area where transportation facilities make it necessary for children to stay in school throughout the day, a noon lunch program is provided. The noon lunch supplies at least a third of the daily nutritional needs of the child. It is a teaching opportunity in which the child is introduced to the seven basic items of diet and to food dishes providing these needs in balanced combinations. In the group situation he more easily accepts the desirable food selections and improves his eating habits. Where only the more customary half-day sessions are held, the children still have the mid-session break during which they are refreshed with milk or fruit juice and graham crackers or cookies. A brief rest period is provided in which the children relax on individual mats or throw-rugs. Where the all-day kindergarten or nursery school program is necessary,

more formal provision for rest must be made. Light folding cots, easily stored, are available. The children can help set these up and put them away. The adequate room space makes it possible to arrange a dormitory for a portion of the afternoon.

A pre-season fall roundup of kindergarten and nursery school children, promoted by parent groups, assures each child of a complete physical examination and of essential immunizations against contagious diseases. The examination provides the basis for any needed corrections or aids such as eye glasses, hearing aids, corrective shoes, braces, minor surgery. The examination also furnishes a complete understanding of the child's physical condition for the use of parents, teachers, and school health staff members in giving adequate attention to healthful development. If the examining pediatrician is not rushed, he often gets a helpful picture of emotional development and of family relationships. This can be shared with the teacher, who will use it appropriately in informal parent education in casual before-and-after-school conversations with parents.

Provision for daily inspection is made at the school so that any youngsters who may be ill when they arrive can be returned home. In the health suite there is provision for isolating, until he can be called for, any child who may become ill during the day. There are first-aid facilities for disinfecting any scratches or wounds, easing bruises, and bandaging cuts. At least once a year the children have their teeth cleaned by the school's dental hygienist. The dental hygienist teaches while she cleans teeth, so that each child becomes accustomed to regular dental care and knows why it is important and how to care for his own teeth. The dental hygienist follows through on the need for any further dental attention to see that the family or other appropriate agency provides it. The classroom provides ready access to toilets and lavatories sized for the age group it serves. Under the supervision of the teacher the children learn cleanliness and independence with respect to going to the toilet. There are facilities for drying clothes which may have become wet from careless washing, falling in puddles, or toilet accidents.

The nursery school and kindergarten have the important responsibility of helping adolescents and adults to understand children. Experiences with the children and opportunities for observation are made available through the nursery school to boys and girls of high-school age. When the school is located in the same building as an elementary school, the pupils on the elementary school council learn to assume some responsibility for

helping little children through traffic and in other ways. The nursery school and kindergarten are focal points of parent education. Such parent education may be embraced in a child-study group organized and carried on by leaders of the parent groups, or it may be organized as a regular part of the adult education program of the school system. Informally it is embodied in the exchange of information as the child is brought to school. In any case the services of family-life consultants, child specialists, and nutritionists are available. As the parent groups meet to study and discuss child development, they learn to integrate all helpful factors that will advance home and family life and promote the well-being of the children. From the school lunch menus they learn what diet is good for children and will be able to fit the family meals around the diet provided by the school. They learn better how to dress youngsters and what appropriate activities to suggest for the use of out-of-school time. They learn to avoid situations from which feelings of rejection, of hostility, of over-dependency, or other emotional imbalances, arise.

For Children of Primary School Age

Generally the primary group have not been handled as a separate unit of the school; they have been either an unseparated part of the elementary school or the lower division of it. The primary grades may be located close to the homes of children when they are included in the neighborhood school building where nursery school and kindergarten are also located. When they are so situated, the first and second years of elementary schooling will probably be joined by the nursery school and kindergarten to make up the neighborhood primary school. When they are situated as part of an elementary school, the first three years of elementary schooling may be expected to be considered the primary division. These years may be organized as a division in which the pupil proceeds at his own rate of ability and advances largely on the basis of his development socially and in ability to read. Since the child proceeds according to his own ability, the school is organized so that he is never failed nor made to repeat a grade. All of his movement is forward. However, he may require more time if his own rate is slower than that of pupils who are more able or whose work has been less interrupted by illness or by moving from school to school.

When children come to the primary division, they usually have little acquaintance with printed or written words, nor have they used printed music. They have had almost no experience with formal number work. They have not learned to use books as sources of information when solving problems or satisfying curiosity. They have not learned to use what others know. They do not love and appreciate great writing, great art, or great music. They have had some practice in the activities of democratic living, but need to perfect their skill in them. The program of the primary school begins with children where they are. It endeavors to increase their abilities, understandings, and appreciations in all areas. Beginning to read, beginning to write, beginning to sing music from notes, beginning to perfect skills in democratic interaction are very difficult activities. Many six-year-olds are not ready for them. Their teacher knows the state of each child's development, and she plans the program of the school in relationship to what the child is already able to do.

The teacher begins where the child is and endeavors to take him each year as far as he is able to go. The children approach the use of printed and written words through experience charts, on which the teacher prints the sentences the children agree upon as they supply items for charts indicating plans for the day, questions the group wishes to find answers for, reports telling what they have found, elementary science experiments telling what they did, reports of field trips. Thus, from the beginning the children become aware of words as useful tools, and in situations which have meaning to them.

As these experiences with words and their counterparts in other phases of the total learning experience expose the differences in individual ability and in rates of development, the teacher rearranges the grouping of pupils within the room. The groups within the class are not fixed but are dependent upon whatever activity has been the occasion for their formation. The reading groups may be selected in terms of reading ability. However, the reading groups do not prescribe the sole basis of grouping. Other groups are formed on the basis of physical maturity, of social skill, of sense of tone and rhythm, of conception of number, of areas of interest. By flexible and varied grouping the teacher promotes the socialization of the pupil, and at the same time most effectively expedites the development of skills and understandings. The groups thus serve to provide early experience in functional grouping, which avoids creation of any caste

system within the total group. High standards are set for each child, but always in terms of what he is able to do. The teacher does not expect any child to do things beyond his ability.

It is necessary for the teacher to know each pupil thoroughly and to know the interactions among pupils. One means of achieving this intimate knowledge is to have children and teacher associated over as long a period of time as possible. This is sometimes achieved by having the teacher work with pupils of a given age group through two or three years. When this is done, children progress at their most desirable pace, and the question of promotion or failure does not arise. The teacher helps each child improve each day but does not measure one child against the other. Over a three-year period of time she is able to help each child achieve maximum development. In some instances the teacher has pupils representing all of the ages in the primary division. This makes possible a greater flexibility in grouping arrangements. In such case each year some of the oldest pupils in the room leave for the intermediate grades and are replaced by new beginners. In either arrangement it is important that not more than twenty to twenty-five pupils be assigned to a teacher.

The teacher understands the ways in which children grow and develop; hence she is able to detect the few children who deviate from normal behavior in extreme and unusual ways. Children with serious speech defects, children who are hard of hearing, children whose eyesight is extremely weak, children who are emotionally disturbed, children who are tone deaf or who have great trouble in singing are referred to the appropriate specialists. Some are helped occasionally in the school. Serious cases attend schools where special help is given. The teacher is also alert for deviations at the other extreme. When she finds students who are unusually gifted in art or music, she notes this talent so that the school may seek out special assistance and opportunities for these youngsters beyond that which can be given by the teacher or within the regular class. She notes students who have unusual intellectual ability and expands the scope of their opportunities and the depth of penetration of materials and ideas so that they may acquire greater breadth of understanding within the classroom.

Continued attention is given to health. The noon luncheon is used as a period of socialization and of instruction in good nutrition. The children of the primary grades are separated from older children on the playground. They have sufficient apparatus for individual play or play in

small groups and also have space in which circle and running games may be played by the total group. The alert observation of the teacher for illness, the dental prophylaxis, the availability of first aid, and reasonable concern for cleanliness are continued to bring into the intermediate school healthy youngsters with well established habits of mental and physical health. Parental education continues to receive the attention of the teaching staff.

For Children of Intermediate School Age

When the usual first and second grades are combined with the nursery school and kindergarten to form the neighborhood school, as suggested above, the intermediate grades (third through sixth) serve pupils eight to twelve years old. If the school unit is a six-year or an eight-year elementary school, the intermediate grades (fourth through sixth) serve pupils nine to twelve years old. The intermediate grades have probably been considered as a separate unit less frequently than any other possible combination of grades and seem likely to achieve a separateness only when the neighborhood school is part of the total pattern. The term "intermediate," and the fact that the years achieve separate identity only as the primary grades are pulled off into the neighborhood school and the old seventh and eighth grades are pulled off into the junior high school, would seem to indicate that the intermediate years are something of an educational no-man's land. As a matter of fact these years are a very important period. In them the pupil turns from major emphasis on the acquisition of primary learning skills to the use of such skills in secondary learnings. The child achieves independence from his complete reliance on home and family and is prepared for the loyalties to companions and causes which will characterize much of his later activity. His general physical and personality balance have not produced any aggravation impelling a study of intermediate-age psychology comparable to child psychology or adolescent psychology or the study of adult human relations.

As the reader follows this overview from age level to age level, he will note that none of the divisions cuts away cleanly from the preceding or following levels. Nor is everything that pervades various levels repeated in this description of each level. Much that follows concerning services for children of intermediate school age applies to the primary grades as

a division of the elementary school. Much that has been said above applies to the program for children of intermediate school age and will be applicable to succeeding levels. In all of the elementary grades the teacher is expected to help children with everything they learn. The teacher is able to sing and to draw. She can help the group with physical exercise and games. She helps with reading, writing, arithmetic, and with all of the other activities that make up the program. She may have the help of specialists or supervisors in planning specific parts of the program and in locating suitable materials and acquiring or improving skills which she needs in order to accomplish the program planned. She uses the help of pupils also in planning and in carrying out the activities of the class.

Because knowledge by itself has little use, the program of the elementary school is always directed toward the use of knowledge. Children learn to read as an important way of doing something which concerns them greatly. Children learn to use tools because they can use them to make things they want. Children learn to add, subtract, multiply, and divide in order to solve problems important to them. Children learn democratic procedures such as serving on committees, organizing social and study groups, and following parliamentary procedures because the use of this knowledge enables them to work together in a better manner. The whole emphasis of a good elementary school program is upon the use of knowledge as the best way to insure its acquisition. Very careful research shows that when the educational program is organized around the use of knowledge, the acquisition of knowledge is greater than otherwise. A good elementary school recognizes that the ability to multiply is of no value unless the pupil uses multiplication in his living. It recognizes that the ability to select and serve on a committee is of no value unless the student uses committees. It recognizes that the ability to read is of no value unless the pupil uses reading.

Because of its understanding of the proper relationship between knowledge and the use of knowledge, the school seeks to develop wise planning by its pupils. The skillful teacher encourages them to develop interests which involve going places and seeing things. Children may wish to visit a zoo, a dairy farm, a museum, a factory. They may desire to see the city or town government at work. These are worthwhile interests for youngsters. In planning a trip to a dairy farm or a factory the boys and girls read so they will understand what they are to see. They set up committees to plan various aspects of the trip, thus getting practice in one of

the procedures of democracy. They consider the cost of the trip, how they are to be transported, where they are to get a lunch if they are away from home; thus they practice the use of arithmetic. They write letters asking for information or for permission to make the visit. They talk with people while on the trip and make reports afterward. They write thank-you letters and descriptions of what they have seen. Reading, writing, arithmetic, and appreciation of democratic activities are used as means toward an end. They assume their appropriate place in the child's life. Knowledge is used for the purpose of solving life problems. This kind of education pervades the work at all levels of the school.

Pupils have experiences with others of their school through assembly or auditorium programs and through student council activities. The assembly programs give them an opportunity for sharing and knowing the work of the various rooms in their school unit as well as occasion for sharing programs provided by guests. They learn to evaluate such programs and to express appreciation and praise when warranted. Through the student council, on which each class has representation, the children learn a relationship broader than that of their own classroom organization. They are concerned with school safety and the manning of pupil safety patrols on the school buses or at street crossings. They are concerned with the favorable appearance of the school building and grounds, and with pleasant and courteous behavior about the school and in the assembly. They are concerned with the promotion of school savings as a practical experience in the value of money and in thrift. They are concerned with the improvement of good fellowship on the playground before and after school, and with appropriate hospitality for parents and others who may visit the school.

The emphasis in the good elementary school is upon child development. It is upon the use of subject matter and school time toward important ends rather than upon the acquisition of knowledge or the busy utilization of school time as an end in itself. It recognizes that children learn through subject matter. It knows that children cannot learn through drill. Drill involves repetition. It is impossible for an individual to repeat anything he has not learned. Drill does have a place in improving the skill of individuals after they have learned. The good teacher uses drill to help children improve their skills.

Knowing that a complete knowledge of each child is necessary, the school has a cumulative record system which furnishes a ready index to

an understanding of the whole child. The record system includes family information, health records, results of standardized tests, significant experiential information, anecdotes characterizing the child or typifying insights into the personality of the child. Records go with the child from division to division and from school to school. Each teacher is able to use them with wise professional judgment as a basis for good counseling of individual students.

Elementary schools are large enough so that there is a class for each age level and are so located that children do not have to travel unreasonable distances from home. In rural and suburban situations transportation between school and home may be necessary. The rooms are large and have movable furniture which can be arranged and adapted to any kind of activity. Each room has running hot and cold water, a sink, a workbench, facilities for preparing food, easels, a radio, a phonograph, a piano, pictures, bulletin boards, and other modern equipment. Adequate provision is made for storage of clothing in lockers or wardrobes inside the room.

The building, ideally, is a one story structure with each room having direct egress to the grounds. The playground space is divided to provide safety and security for the younger children in areas separate from those used by older children. There is adequate provision for organized games. The intermediate school age children participate in softball, touch football, volley ball, and similar team games. There are swings and slides and other appropriate playground apparatus. There is a gymnasium, with showers and dressing rooms, in which the recreational and physical educational program can be carried on when it is impossible to get out of doors.

The elementary school building provides an adult center for the area it serves in that the gymnasium, auditorium, and cafeteria are so located and designed that they can be readily available during out-of-school hours.

Teachers have office space in addition to the desks provided in the regular classrooms. Such space is available for conferences with parents, pupils, and other teachers. It provides a place where the teacher may leave personal property and individual study materials without fear that they will be moved or mislaid, and where she may engage in the professional reading and study necessary to the accomplishment of her professional job. The principal's office is divided into a private and a public office. The private office is available for conferences, study, and work; the general

office presents an attractive setting in which parents and pupils and teachers will feel at ease.

For Junior High School Youth

The junior high school years are most commonly thought of as corresponding to grades seven, eight, and nine. In some instances where a community junior college is integrated with the senior high school to combine the eleventh through the fourteenth years, the junior high school will include the tenth grade.

When the child leaves the elementary school, his childhood is near its end. Some may already have reached puberty, and for others adolescence will come rather soon. For still others it may occur only after several years. Girls mature at a younger age than boys. The onset of adolescence is a critical time. What happens to young people in school and out during this period will have a very marked effect upon the kind of person each will become. During these years the child developing into youth should be in the junior high school. The age group will generally include those from twelve to fifteen or sixteen years old.

The former eight-grade elementary school program was frequently called the common school. Some have called the junior high school the common secondary school. This is because the common needs of youth in early adolescence, including their needs for exploration and tryout in a variety of areas, are so great that the pupils are not directed into specialized programs. Rather, they are held in a common organization with ample attention to the individual differences within the groups for most of the school time. The junior high school years continue the development of language usage for reasonable thinking, effective speaking, and appropriate writing; the use of the facts and procedures of mathematics and science and social science to arrive at understandings and decisions; the further development of self-dependence and of interdependence as the pupil assumes more responsibility for his own affairs and participates coöperatively with others in common enterprises. He is introduced to a wide selection of information and experience so that he may have adequate background for the choice and development of life interests in business and professions, in government, in mode of personal learning and development. During this period he is given much help in coming to understand himself and the process of development he is experiencing as it is

related to the world situation of his day. The junior high school years are the years of intense orientation. The pupil spends a substantial portion of his day under the guidance of his home-room or common-learning or fundamental-education teacher. This teacher, working coöperatively with the pupils, is concerned with the development of the skills and understanding necessary for effective democratic action. He helps the students to broaden their knowledge in many areas. He seeks to deepen their appreciation of the true, the good, and the beautiful.

When children enter adolescence, they are able to do far more complex things than they did formerly. Their talents have developed more fully. Differences among them in ability have also become much more obvious. What they have learned to do and what they have experienced make their needs increasingly diverse. In meeting these needs at a more advanced level the junior high school finds that some specialists are desirable. The pupil spends less and less time with his home-room teacher as he progresses through the junior high school. During the time he is away from the home-room he will be in a shop, a gymnasium, a foods laboratory, a clothing laboratory, a music room, an art room, a printing shop, or in some other place that has special equipment. In each room he will have the assistance of a teacher who understands youth thoroughly and who has above average ability to do creative work in the field in which he works. The junior high school has many activities other than classes. There are clubs, athletic teams, musical organizations, speech activities, student government organizations, club and class and school parties and picnics. There are many opportunities for young people to meet informally in order to improve their ability to work together.

Through all of these in- and out-of-class activities the junior high school desires to give pupils the skills necessary for effective and creative work. It wants to improve their health and bodily dexterity. It wishes them to participate in social and recreational life with persons of their own and of the opposite sex. The school helps individuals who have already developed interests and talents to improve and deepen them. It offers new experiences in many different kinds of activities so that other individuals will have opportunities to discover areas of interest or unknown talent.

Through the junior high school, as through all of the other levels in a good school system, runs the understanding that growth and development of children come best when they have opportunities to use what they learn as they learn it. Instructional methods center around this great principle.

The school reaches out into the community as a place for practicing what must be learned. Adolescents have many interests like those of adults. They wish to participate in adult programs. In the good community they are given an opportunity to do this. They take part in community chest drives. They help the Red Cross. They think and plan along with all citizens as the city planning commission makes or revises the program of community development, and they suggest solutions to parking or traffic or housing or other problems. They take part in any school or community survey in which they may help through census taking or through gathering and counting other information needed. They are encouraged to observe the government of the community and to make suggestions about its improvement. They study the constitution of their own student organization and effect desirable amendments to it. They take cognizance of national issues and write letters to their representatives in the Congress. They study the problems of their state and endeavor to get persons in authority to consider their proposals. As they do these things they learn much about their community, their state, and their nation that is new to them. They also learn how to go about getting things done which, in their opinions, lead to improvement in their way of life.

The junior high school should have at least three hundred pupils so that adequate physical facilities for the broad junior high school program can be justified. This number of students also makes possible a strong intramural sports program, and a wide arrangement of grouping pupils for special purposes. Group discussion and conversation activities to broaden interests and tolerance will involve individuals who differ rather widely from each other. The improvement of specific skills can be accomplished in groups where the ability level is similar. In other instances the grouping will be based upon physical development, upon social maturity, upon areas of interest.

The school lunch program should be so woven into the daily schedule as to provide maximum opportunity for meetings of special groups and for carrying on a variety of activities. It should also be an instructional program in good nutrition and proper social behavior. The students should help plan and evaluate the cafeteria menus and relate such activity to their study in science and health and foods classes. The health services suggested in discussion of preceding levels are continued in junior high school, with pupils taking some of the responsibility for administering first aid. Personal counseling as well as presentation of information in appropriate

groups is given concerning the onset of adolescence. The health services and the physical education program put special stress upon personal hygiene, and the shower after exercise becomes a regular part of the physical education class program.

Ideally, the junior high school building will be located on a large plot of ground which provides space for baseball, soccer, touch football, tennis, field hockey, and other team games. A space will be provided where various groups can plant growing things. There should be a shaded place which can be used for picnics or for the eating of a picnic lunch shared by the boys and girls during good weather. In most climates an outdoor swimming pool is desirable.

Within the building the regular classrooms should have large floor space, movable furniture that can be adapted to a variety of arrangements and activities, and much of the equipment suggested for elementary school rooms. There should be provision for adequate space in the various special rooms for the equipment necessary for the shop, the kitchen, the sewing room, the art room, and the like. It should be possible to store equipment and supplies in orderly fashion close to where they are to be used. Teachers should have office space in addition to the desks provided in regular classrooms, and the principal's offices should provide a private office, a general office, and a records office. There should be a gymnasium, an auditorium, a little theater, a cafeteria, and meeting rooms which may also serve as offices for student clubs and government and similar activities. These rooms may also be made available for use of adults when they are not being used for school purposes.

For Senior High School Youth

The senior high school years include the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades—unless the arrangement suggested above prevails in which grades eleven through fourteen are included. These last two years will be considered later in connection with the junior or community college. The senior high school enrollment is made up, largely, of the youth fifteen to eighteen years old. Most of them are adolescents, although a few have not yet reached this period in their development. They come from all of the economic levels, all of the religious faiths and political creeds, represented in the community. Their needs have become increasingly complex and diverse during the years they attended junior high school. The senior high

school represents democracy's last direct opportunity to help people of wide differences learn to live together, sharing their common interests and meeting their common needs as well as appreciating and promoting their specialized differences. The school must provide an over-all program of student government and other activities which promote unity among students and help create wide understanding and appreciation of fellow students. The school must also meet the complex pattern of individual interests and needs and abilities that have become so forcefully evident.

What has happened to the pupils outside the school and what has happened to their families affects what they want to do while in the senior high school. What they have learned in their exploration of creative and manipulative work in the junior high school has great influence upon what they will do in the high school. The knowledge they need falls into two general divisions. One is the common core of knowledge which must be developed for all citizens who are to live adequately in a modern community. The other is the specialized knowledge in particular fields which enables individuals to work or to continue their education. Through both parts of this system of knowledge run many general skills, understandings, and appreciations. Students must think critically in both general and specialized education. They must be able to carry on effective democratic action. They need to speak intelligently and to write accurate, idiomatic English. They should be able to do the computing needed in daily living and on the job. If these things are to be learned in both the area of common education and in the area of specialized education, they must be used in each area.

By the time students have reached the senior high school many of them will be able to learn effectively from the experience of others. This they will do through listening to other people or through reading about what others have done. Within a senior high school both the common learnings and the specialized areas will provide many opportunities for vicarious experience. There will be no lessening of the number of first-hand experiences. As in the junior high school the time used in common learnings will be greater in the first year than in the last; at the senior high school level at least half of the pupil's time will be spent in specialized learning.

The senior high student has a great interest in what goes on in the world. Hence, the curriculum of the senior high school should reach increasingly out into the community. There are many things which senior high school students can be encouraged to do at a high level of ability.

Although the students will participate in a school-wide organization which provides relationship for all activities of all students, they will also participate in activities related to the life of the community. In some instances they will participate in the programs of the Chamber of Commerce, the American Federation of Labor, the Congress of Industrial Organizations or other groups whose programs call for the participation of youth of high school age. Others will participate in youth organizations similar to and somewhat related to corresponding adult organizations such as the Future Farmers of America, the Future Homemakers, and the Future Teachers. The school will seek opportunities for every student to become associated with a student organization serving a civic purpose and to work in groups providing opportunities to come to know the goals and operations of various adult organizations. A second set of organizations may be centered around hobby or avocational interests. Among such organizations are camera clubs, debating societies, stamp clubs, dancing clubs, and record clubs.

Each teacher in the senior high school understands adolescents thoroughly and has a personal interest in some kind of student activity. These teachers use counselors to help them plan the extra-curricular and curricular activities with their students. The guidance program of the senior high school is directed toward helping boys and girls make school adjustments while in school. It is directed toward helping them make satisfactory adjustments to their families and the community. It helps them find and keep jobs. It keeps in touch with students who are at work, helping them with problems on the job, with personal problems, and with problems of self-improvement through further training. The follow-up study of graduates influences the development of the educational program. What goes on in the school is continuously adjusted to the present needs of young people.

The general and the specialized programs of the school reflect the community served by the school. There are opportunities present for both boys and girls to learn to prepare food, to select and design and construct clothing, to select furniture, to plan budgets for themselves individually and for families and group organizations, and to practice other activities needed to maintain good living. There are adequate provisions for the use of typewriters by all students. Additional opportunities for increasing skill are provided to persons who plan to use typing vocationally.

There are laboratories in which pupils can learn about living things,

about the world of nature, and about the principles of science. The specialized program of the school reflects the job opportunities of the community, including those to which people from the community may go outside of the school community. These opportunities are provided in specialized rooms in the school or are provided throughout the community by cooperative arrangement with the service shops, the stores, the industrial plants, and other commercial ventures. Individuals from the community serve as resource people to both the general and the specialized programs of the school. This exchange in direct contacts is the senior high school pattern of helping adults know and understand adolescent youth and helping youth to know what kind of a situation and with what kind of people they will be living.

The school plant may be arranged campus style with several buildings, each for a special purpose. These buildings will be connected by covered walks so that students can move from building to building in inclement weather. The school needs an auditorium, a library, a gymnasium, a cafeteria, an instrumental music room for band and orchestra, a large choral music room, practice rooms for individuals or small groups working with musical instruments or on vocal music. A nursery school or kindergarten provides opportunity for high school students to observe and assist young children. Rooms are provided for art work in metals, plastics, sculpturing, painting, stagecraft. Shops are available for each field of industry that is strong in the community. Woodworking, metalworking, working in plastics, printing, and the various building trades are among the most common.

Through the busy life of the school run the two great ideas of improving and acquiring techniques of democratic interaction and of understanding that knowledge is acquired most readily as it is used in the accomplishment of the purposes of the learner.

For Young Adults in the Junior or Community College

The individuals in the community college will mostly be from eighteen to twenty-one or twenty-two years of age. They will be individuals who have completed the senior high school program or who dropped out of the senior high school program and have matured somewhat since their withdrawal. There will be occasional students older than the age group indicated. All of these individuals, however, will be giving the major por-

tion of their time to pursuit of organized class-work and activities. Their purposes will be acquiring more general education, preparing for specific employment opportunities, completing the initial years of a program of regular college work, or re-training for employment. They will not represent all of the pupils of this age level, but only those who have these specific purposes. Many of their contemporaries will have found full time employment in the community, will have left the community for employment elsewhere, will have enrolled in four-year colleges or in special technical schools, or will not have had the interest to continue for an additional year or two of training beyond the senior high school program. However, there should be a minimum of three or four hundred students to make possible the program of activities and course offerings that will serve the needs of this group.

The program of the junior or community college will be related rather directly to the vocational emphasis in the local community. Many of the instructors of trades and of business procedures will be part-time staff members who leave their regular employment in community enterprises to give courses in their particular fields. With the program related so directly to the community enterprises, the pattern of the program will differ from community to community. Individuals wishing to pursue courses related to particular vocations may find it necessary to leave the home community and study in the community where such emphasis exists. The emphasis might be on agriculture in one situation, on manufacture of machine tools in another, on dairy production and cheese-making and processing in another, on watch-making in another, on furniture manufacturing in another, on petroleum production elsewhere, on garment-making or manufacture of shoes in still other communities.

But there will be a strong core of general education both for those whose interests are vocational or general and for those whose interests are further preparation for completing college work elsewhere. About one-sixth of the student's time will be given to this core program. The center of the common learnings program will be in good citizenship, with emphasis on community study and community service. Students will participate actively in the affairs and organizations of the community so that they may learn citizenship as they live it. With the broader vision of affairs beyond the community which can be emphasized in the community college program, these students will also serve to relate more completely the community and its people to affairs of statewide, nationwide and worldwide scope. Their

discussions, study, publications, and guest speakers will all help broaden the interests of people throughout the local communities in the society of humankind.

While this community study is the center of the program, it is also an area in which students use many skills as they learn. They will use many sources of reference to get information for use in their activities as citizens. They will read the publications of government, of analysts of contemporary affairs, of universities, of various organizations. They will write letters seeking the point of view of leaders and expressing their own conclusions about them. They will make computations to find the cost of civic enterprises and to discover if public funds are used prudently. They will help calculate the various forecasting estimates on which community developmental plans of governmental subdivisions and of community organizations are based. When studying taxation, they will relate it to community needs. They will become familiar with intellectual and social and economic movements throughout the country. They will try to improve the way in which the common man lives. Through these studies and activities students will acquire the intelligent patriotism that will lead them to exalt democracy above all other systems and to understand the adaptability that will keep democracy effective.

Another area of general education is that of the arts. Each individual will continue to practice the skills he began to develop in the lower secondary school. He will have many opportunities to improve his literacy and his appreciation of the artistic productions of others. He will see the relationship of the arts to daily life through radio, concerts, television, exhibits, design of tools, architecture of homes and other buildings, pattern of furniture, color and style of clothing. He will continue to deepen his love and appreciation for great writing. He will discover the contributions of many other nationalities to all of the arts.

All students will become better acquainted with the methods of science and will understand more fully the influence of science on the activities of man. They will give attention to a generalized treatment of the sciences of man in anthropology, psychology, and sociology. The common education courses in the total program are more likely to be under the direction of full-time staff members. Some of these will be individuals whose time is shared with the high school program, and some may be individuals who share time as supervisors throughout the rest of the school system.

Running through all of the courses and curriculums will be the points

of view common to the whole system: (1) The school has a primary concern for the development of health. (2) What is learned best is learned through use. (3) A major purpose of the school is to develop understanding and use of democratic procedures. (4) Society is served as the valuable differences of each individual are discovered and enhanced. (5) Knowing what to do and how to do it must be accompanied by a value-system for determining when to do it and which action or choice is best.

The junior or community college may have its own campus and facilities similar to those suggested for the senior high school. Or it may share campus and facilities with the senior high school, in which instance adequate facilities for the total group to be served must be provided.

The placement and follow-up services of the community college are well-organized. As in the case of the high school, those students who leave will be studied so that the educational program may be adjusted continuously to the needs of the young adults of the community. Probably two thirds of those completing the senior high school program will continue for one or two years in the community college. The counseling service will administer tests to individuals so that their measurable abilities will be known at the time their programs are planned. It will gather other records to provide information for wise counseling of each individual. This counseling will center first upon an educational program best adapted to each student. Next, it will place him on a job in which he shows greatest promise of success. It will follow up to find out how he is doing on the job and what additional help from the school he needs. It will give him further educational guidance as the need develops. As need arises, it will help him in his relationships within his family and within the community, and will place him in touch with agencies which can help him in these matters.

Adult Educational Programs

The desire of educators to help parents understand children and to have assistance in improving their performance as parents has been noted above. The school, especially in connection with the nursery school, kindergarten, and primary divisions, provides for observation of children and for parent education. Parent education, as already indicated, may be fostered through furnishing assistance to groups organized under other

than school sponsorship or through groups organized by the school and served by family-life consultants. This particular program helps people confronted by the adjustment to parenthood. It is one aspect of the educational service available to adults of the total community. Those with young children should be encouraged to participate.

Although the program of the junior or community college is planned primarily for young adults who are full-time students, another aspect of service to all adults in the community is the availability of any portion of its program to those who wish retraining vocationally or who may find interest in broadening their general education or in developing an avocational interest.

In addition to these phases of adult education the school will offer a program of adult education under the coordination of a director trained specifically in the problems of adult education. The program will include a wide variety of evening or late afternoon classes held over varying periods of time and organized around the interests of those who wish to participate. Such short non-credit courses as the following are illustrative of the variety: personal typing, sewing, cooking, art work, world affairs, woodworking, photography, parliamentary procedure, public speaking, family budgeting, home repairs, contemporary economics, great books, great music, square dancing, archery, swimming, first aid, home nursing, civil government, taxation. The director determines what courses are wanted, how much time is required for them, how many people will take them, where they may be held, what instructors may be obtained, and how the course may be financed. He draws on the school and community facilities for space and equipment as well as for instructional staff. The adult education program also includes lecture series, concerts, panel discussions, showings of films, assistance to neighborhood study clubs, and similar activities for which no continuing enrollment is required. In these activities individuals participate voluntarily and without any formal obligation other than their presence. Whatever share of the immediate cost, if any, is to be met may be assessed there by way of admission charges.

Such an adult education program makes it possible for many adults throughout the community to know school facilities and staff and to know and appreciate the pleasure and value of pursuing education. The leadership in the local community is more widely spread. The number of individuals who can serve as resource people to the school is increased. The

educational program in the community is something purchased for the whole community and not simply an institution maintained for the day care of children who would otherwise be unoccupied.

Special Services for All Schools

In the good school system necessary education is made available to each child. Some will be unable to attend school. They may have rheumatic-fever or cerebral palsy or may have suffered poliomyelitis. A visiting teacher will come to the homes of such individuals and help them develop intellectually and emotionally. This visiting teacher will carry to these isolated children some feeling of common sharing and attachment to the total group of children of their age levels. She will help them develop understanding and liking for other people.

Some children who are able to come to school will be unable to work all day with other children because of serious physical defects. These children may be deaf, blind, or crippled. In the good school system special classes are provided as home-rooms for these individuals. They spend much of their time in these classrooms but share whatever portion of the rest of the school program they are able to share with other boys and girls. Each special class is under the care of a teacher with special training. The work of the teacher is to help such pupils acquire necessary skills and understandings in spite of their handicaps. Her work along with that of the total school staff is to help them compensate for their handicaps and also to adjust as soon and as completely as possible to situations which they share with those who are not so handicapped. Children emotionally disturbed because of unfortunate experiences will receive corresponding special treatment. They will be given psychological, psychiatric, and social assistance from trained workers. They will learn to readjust their lives to the living of the community. These special teachers working with the physically handicapped and the emotionally disturbed will also work closely with parents so that both home and school will do what is best for the children.

Children who have educational difficulties to such a degree that a regular teacher is unable to provide for them within the group activities of their schoolmates will be given special remedial or corrective attention by one trained for such purposes. Individuals who show unusual talent will be placed for part of their time with teachers who understand what can be

done for gifted children. In some cases the needs of the individual child will be so different from the needs of the group as a whole that he must be taken from the group. The school does not forget its basic task of helping children to acquire and improve techniques of democratic interaction. When the child is taken from the group, many opportunities are provided for him to return to the group each day and to do important things with his schoolmates.

The concern of the school for improvement and maintenance of health will be operative through a school-wide health service. The school will keep health records on each child which will disclose the pattern of his physical development and the illnesses and accidents he has encountered. Complete medical examinations will be required at appropriate intervals. Recommendations will be made by the school physician and school nurse to family physicians who work closely with the health program of the school. Through the program of dental hygiene every pupil will learn regular care of his teeth and habituate himself to periodic attention by his private dentist. The school will lead the way in replacing restorative dentistry with maintenance of good teeth. The school will coöperate with the public health officers in seeing that pupils receive any necessary immunization from diseases. Continuous attention to corrective exercises for posture will be given to those needing such exercises. Children who need special exercises in order to strengthen muscles or who need other kinds of experiences as a result of their physical condition will receive them from individuals in the school under the advice of a physician. Each teacher will know the pertinent facts from the child's health record and will be alert to the daily physical condition of the child.

The school will also provide psychological services throughout the system. These will include standardized testing services for the evaluation and guidance of the school system at various levels. It will provide individual tests for diagnosis of educational difficulties, and for ascertaining the effectiveness of remedial instruction or of innovations in the program. Aptitude tests and personality tests will be available for the help of counselors. The service will also provide expert counseling for emotionally disturbed pupils and help for parents and teachers who feel that the problems of their children and pupils require the analysis and advice of experts. Psychiatric services will be available through referral if not through the services of a regular staff member.

The school system will maintain an agency to assist and coördinate ex-

perimentation, research, and planning. Such a service will encourage the continuous study and improvement of the total program and each aspect of it by the school staff. It will assist teachers and others in planning and designing special studies for careful evaluation of present practices and materials or for tryout of new procedures and devices. It will keep the school staff and the community informed on the research and experimentation under way throughout the system, showing the relationship of the various projects to each other and to the direction in which the school program seems to be developing. This agency will help determine when it is desirable and necessary to free staff members from part or all of their regular load so that they may give attention to a special project. It will also keep abreast of research and developments throughout the profession which have pertinence to the program of the local school and to any contemplated developments. The agency will also design and conduct studies deemed advisable by the professional staff.

Provision will be made for service to the school system in the development of teaching materials. This division may be organized around the central depository of educational films, film-strips, recordings, and other audio-visual instructional materials. But the division will have broader scope in that it will help develop models, mock-ups, charts, and demonstration devices suggested by members of the staff or suggested by the expressed needs of staff members. It will encourage the collection of pictures and the preparation of such pictures. Help will be available in the development of written materials of instruction as well. The materials service agency will be alert to new developments in educational materials over the country as well as to sources to which to turn for devices that may serve the needs of teachers within the system. The agency will encourage creative development of teaching materials and will share throughout the system the effective experience in the use of any such materials.

Desirable Characteristics of the Community and Its School Organization

The school community able to provide the kind of program suggested above is one having size and wealth and diversification. It was recognized earlier in the chapter that in many parts of the country school districts do not presently comprise such communities. The kind of program described implies a community with sufficient population to provide enough students at the junior college level to justify the offering of the program of

that sort. Its boundaries are extensive enough so that whatever productive business, industrial, mineral, and agricultural properties exist are included with the residential areas, thus providing a sufficiently broad tax base to support the program for those who live in the residences. The diversification has several aspects. There is diversification of occupations so that a sudden economic crisis in some one or two fields of productive endeavor does not challenge the stability of the district. This occupational diversification not only helps provide economic stability; it enhances educational opportunity in that the community laboratory provides field work, training, and individuals to assist in the school program. There is diversification also in the religious faiths, the racial backgrounds, the political parties, the economic and social classes, represented in the community. Such diversity provides a basis for broad learning about racial, religious, political, occupational, economic, and social differences. It also provides a laboratory for the development of ways of working together and of establishing common understanding. The diversification also provides many occasions for differences in points of view which can be turned to social potential for change and development.

The people of the school community have faith in democracy and seek to advance democratic procedures. Because they have such faith, they have good will toward public education and see it as the common meeting ground of all of the peoples of the community. Other training activities of religious, racial, occupational, and social groups are planned not as replacements of the public school program but as additions to it. Such special programs do not interfere with the support of public education nor with the reasonable time schedule for its activities but rather provide additional services for special groups on a schedule coördinated with that of the schools. The people in the community have a knowledge of the power of education from their familiarity with some of the studies made.² They know what difference effective education has made in their own community. They understand what the schools are trying to do.

The board of education is made up of individuals representative of the entire community. These individuals may or may not be drawn from the various segments of the community. However they are drawn, they are individuals concerned with the well-being and the future of the total com-

² See such reports as the following: Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Committee on Education, *Education—an Investment in People*; H. F. Clark, *Education Steps Up Living Standards*; Hughes and Lancelot, *Education, America's Magic*; Olson and Fletcher, *Learn and Live*.

munity and each part of it as well as with the welfare of all children and each child. They are selected by citizens in terms of "who would we like to have speak for us" rather than "which of us shall speak" on educational matters. The position of members of the board is that of doing more than simply reflecting the sentiments and opinions currently held by the people of the district. They must approach their responsibility on the basis of studying problems and reaching decisions in a manner representative of that which would be achieved if all of the citizens were able to give such an amount of time to study and to decision-making. With the time board members give to study and understanding, they are always in a position to go beyond the sentiments and opinions currently held by citizens who have not had the opportunity to study and understand. They are accepted by the community on this basis. They are accepted as individuals so representative of the community that the decisions they reach through study and deliberation are those that would be reached by the community if it were possible for all to participate in study and deliberation.

The board of education selects a professional staff personally and technically competent. The staff knows education, children, and subject matter. The staff knows how best to bring into operation the policy decisions of the community reached through the deliberations of its representative board. The staff knows enough to suggest to the board and the community the areas for study and deliberation and to assist in providing the tools of data gathering and analysis helpful to the laymen concerned and responsible for decisions. The professional staff represents individuals with racial, religious, political, social, and economic differences. It also consists of individuals coming from a variety of geographic locations and trained in a variety of institutions of higher education; thus the different viewpoints represented provide for criticism and suggestions conducive to careful evaluation and helpful development.

More detailed consideration is given to the local community in Chapter 4, to the influence of organized groups in Chapter 6, and to the organization of school personnel in Chapters 12 and 13. In this chapter the writers have presented an overview of the school and the school community as they conceive it in their discussion of educational administration.

Suggested Reading

National Education Association, Educational Policies Commission, *Education for All American Youth*. A projection by a distinguished group of educators of the sweeping educational reforms necessary to meet the criteria of democratic life. The ideal school is exemplified in two fictional systems, "Farmville" and "American City." This work is most helpful in the number of specific changes indicated as means of meeting recognized goals. *Education for All American Children*. Describes hypothetically ideal elementary schools and contrasts them with practices already in existence. Patterned after the earlier volume mentioned above.

Additional suggested readings, dealing for the most part with practices in particular school systems, follow.

Prudence Bostwick, *A Functional High School Program for the Urban Community*. This is a brief treatment (fifty-seven pages) which has found popularity among school teachers. Probably useful when used with a more extensive analysis.

Elsie R. Clapp, *Community Schools in Action*. A carefully explained and documented account of two community schools, one in Kentucky and one in West Virginia. The former is largely rural in nature, the latter is in a mining locale. The author demonstrates a high proficiency in her grasp of principles and concepts as well as in the observational disciplines needed for accurate reporting. A cogent foreword is supplied by John Dewey.

Samuel Everett, *School and Community Meet*. This pamphlet reports several attempts to further education through public school programs. It reveals, though this is not the main aim, a very important side of American culture within which the schools must operate.

Lorene K. Fox, *The Rural Community and Its School*. A study of Chautauqua County, New York, this book aims at discovering and explaining the patterns of interrelationships that can and should exist between educational programs and the changing life of the people in a rural community. The study investigates historical, institutional, and attitudinal aspects of social change.

L. D. Haskew, "People-built Education," *School Executive* (March, 1950). This article lists suggestions, with supporting illustrations, of what school administrators can and should do to help bring the community into school affairs. The emphasis is upon lay advisory groups.

G. R. Koopman, "Formula for Merging School and Community," *Nations Schools* (August, 1948). The author presents an argument for making the home and the school the nucleus of integrated modern life. He argues from many sources and uses illustrations from school systems which he believes are making progress toward the goal of school-community merger.

John Lund, "Education Can Change Community Life," *School Life* (November, 1948). A brief report of the second annual meeting of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration. The main theme is the attempt to investigate how education can change community life. Sixteen characteristics of the community school are listed.

Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community Programs*. A catalog-type presentation of many articles from educational journals dealing with the general topic of how to make more communal use of our schools. The contributions are quite uneven, but there is something worthwhile for anyone interested in the community-school movement.

Dan H. Cooper and Orville E. Peterson (Editors), *Schools for Young Adolescents*. This monograph is a product of an informal organization of about sixty superintendents in metropolitan Chicago. It attempts a synthesis of findings from the entire literature on the subject of early adolescent education. Especially relevant quotations are included.

Roma Gans, Celia Burns Stendler, and Millie Almy, *Teaching Young Children*. A recent discussion of education in the nursery school, kindergarten, and primary grades. Much of the material reflects the experience of the authors in teaching situations.

Decisions to Be Made in Providing Education

CHAPTER

American schools are the responsibility of the total citizenry. They are the means through which we understand and serve the characteristics and possibilities of each pupil. Only at the face-to-face level of relationships can pupils be known individually. When youngsters are remote and numerous, they are seen as statistics, and they lose their individuality. But this responsibility for each pupil is a responsibility of the total citizenry, and through the schools, as in no other way, the whole society is brought into operational relationship with each individual pupil. If this relationship is to be expressed in individual consideration, many plans and actions must be accomplished at the local community level. If it is to be truly a responsibility of the total citizenry, plans and actions must be accomplished at levels of government representing broader segments of society.

When all the decisions bearing upon the education of any one individual are considered, they are seen as being of many sorts and made by a variety of individuals and groups. Some of these decisions are policy decisions; others are action decisions. The policy decisions direct action and the action decisions help fix policy. Many of the decisions are made by the professional staff of the schools. Some decisions are made by the pupils themselves; others, by their parents. Some decisions are made by direct vote of the local citizens; many are made by the local citizens through their representatives comprising the board of education. Some decisions

are made by executive officers of the state, and the basic decisions are made by the citizens of the state through their legislative representatives. Some of the decisions are made by divisions of the federal government. These decisions are subject to the pressures of many influences.

In American life it is generally presumed that the policy decisions will be made by the total citizenry directly or through representatives, and that the action decisions will be made by the professionals. The people determine what goals they wish to set and employ professionals to direct activity toward these goals. (A portion of the policy decisions governs the employment and working conditions of the professional.) However, this division holds only as a general rule. In actual practice the people may vote on action decisions. For example, a school election may be held on whether or not to issue bonds for schoolhouse construction or which of two or more school sites to purchase. Prior to the election professionals have worked to determine how much money will be needed and also to determine which site or sites will be suitable. The people, through their representatives on boards of education, employ the teachers, but the teachers to be employed are nominated by the professional staff after technical consideration of qualifications. The professionals in day-to-day operation run into many situations on which policy decisions have not been reached. They are forced to take action that seems immediately best to them. A subsequent policy decision may be conditioned by the success or failure of the action they took. In spite of this interplay constantly taking place between policy and action decisions, it is sound, in our form of government, to have decisions on what is wanted made by the whole people directly or through representatives and to depend upon the professionals to develop the action which will accomplish these desires. The professionals are the action agents, but they are not to become dictators. The people determine the ends and the professionals provide the means.

Decisions Depend on Organization and Characteristics of Local Districts

Decisions about the schools are based in part on technical knowledge, *in part on current public sentiment, and in part on contemporary relationships* of the school to other aspects of American life. Decisions should be reached on the basis of pertinent information selected and processed

through technical procedures. In our form of government decisions must have favorable public sentiment, and they must fit the pattern of personnel and material available, the time allowable, the economics and politics of the period. They cannot be made without regard to the contemporary relationships. Even though a decision may be technically correct, it will be unacceptable if it does not have favorable public sentiment. On the other hand, a decision which has only favorable public sentiment and is defective technically will avail little. The job of administration is to achieve this balance between technology, public sentiment, and contemporary fitness.

The level at which decisions are considered and made is dependent in part upon the nature of the decision, but it is also dependent upon the pattern of district organization. When school districts are so small that they do not have sufficient pupil population to justify provision of the services and facilities of modern education, one of the decisions may be that of reorganizing districts to achieve adequate size. Unless there is leadership at the county or state level, it is difficult for a small district to bring about consideration of such reorganization by the people who will comprise the new school community. Another possible decision is that of planning and arranging the coöperative provision of services that the small district cannot provide on its own. The decision to coöperate is also difficult without the assistance of county or state school officials. Small school districts do keep many matters close to the people of the district; but if they are too small, the choices available are so restricted that little else can be done than to try to meet standards established by the state or by regional accrediting associations. In such instances the decisions are actually being made for the small districts by the state or by others outside the district, and local initiative has been lost. The kinds of decisions that can be made are dependent upon the size of the district.

Great size also presents many problems. When the district is big, it is difficult for individual citizens to know enough about the whole district to participate effectively in decision-making. When there are tens of thousands of school pupils, any district-wide decisions seem remote from the individual pupil or even from the individual attendance center. In order to provide for effective involvement in decision-making and in the selection of representatives, it is necessary to organize carefully within the district. The decisions that can be made are dependent upon community organization for participation in decision-making.

The decisions are also dependent upon the heterogeneity of the district population and the diversity of the enterprises located in the community. The school can determine realistically to cut across all levels of American life only when all levels are represented within the district. The degree of tolerance and understanding to be achieved through direct association of people of various races and religions is dependent upon the presence of a variety of such representatives. The use of the community for out-of-class learning experiences is determined by available and usable areas of activity and points of interest. Mere presence of heterogeneity is not enough. The variety of kinds of people in the community may result in cleavages along racial or religious or economic lines, thus preventing utilization of the advantages of the array of viewpoints present. It may result in a power structure in which policy and action decisions are made by the strong and imposed on the others. However, with appropriate organization the potential advantages of the heterogeneity that is broadly characteristic of American life can be realized. The basis of consideration in reaching decisions is thus broadened, and the breadth of opportunities for decision is expanded.

Areas of Local Decision within the Framework of State Law

Throughout the United States local areas have, under state laws, been organized into school districts. The fact that this organization has been accomplished indicates a decision by and for the local community to assume responsibility for providing education within the framework of state law. In very small school districts this does not always imply a decision to operate a school. There are school districts in which no children of school age reside, or from which all resident children of school age are transported to other districts for schooling, or in which all resident pupils attend parochial and private schools. With these few exceptions, which are being eliminated through district reorganization, every local district is committed to operate schools.

The local district must make decisions within five general areas, as described on the following pages.

Who Shall Be Educated?

Every state has a compulsory education or compulsory attendance law. The laws so labeled specify—not what education is compulsory—but rather the individuals who must attend school. Such specification is stated in terms of universal compulsory school ages, with certain exemptions permitted. Provisions for enforcement of the compulsory attendance laws vary from state to state. In one state, for example, the local school officials may determine to suspend a pupil from school but may not expell the pupil except upon direction of the chief state school officer. In that state cases of truancy are investigated by state attendance workers. In most states the effectiveness of the enforcement of compulsory attendance laws depends upon the accuracy with which the local district maintains a continuous school census and investigates cases of non-attendance.

The local district must decide whether it assumes the obligation of compulsory education for the age group specified or merely the obligation of complying with the law. If it assumes only the latter, it is concerned with seeing that certain pupils are in school. When the obligation of compulsory education is assumed, it implies further decisions about the educational program. When each child of the compulsory attendance ages must be accounted for, and when this accounting is accurately accomplished, the district must decide upon whether or not it will provide home instruction for homebound youngsters, upon what basis it will urge commitment of incompetent or incorrigible children to institutions, how it will make this imposed time-serving of value to individual pupils and to the community, with full recognition of the wide variety of abilities and interests forced into the school. In enforcing compulsory attendance the local district may determine whether it will make use of police power and legal prosecution or emphasize adherence to the law through the use of visiting teachers and social workers. Even with the same state laws applicable, the percentage of children of school age in school varies from community to community because of action decisions in the local community and because some policy is established through the mere fact that some community has failed to take any definite action.

By specific provision and by implication state laws also specify who may be educated at public expense. This permissive legislation leaves an array of decisions to the local community. One of the oldest of these is the

permission to offer secondary education to those above the compulsory school age. The local community frequently forces the schools to accept pupils at an age younger than the compulsory school attendance age through a state law indicating that pupils *may* attend school at an age below the compulsory attendance age. In most states the local community decides the calendar date on which such age shall be determined. It may decide whether such legal entrance age means admission to the first grade or to some pre-first-grade schooling. In many states the local community may determine whether or not to offer services to children below the legally stated entrance age; thus in any given community services may or may not be offered to children of nursery-school age. The local community may decide to whom regular adult education services may be offered, and whether or not educational services to adults are also to be offered informally.

How Shall They Be Educated?

What educational program shall be offered? How much education shall be offered? How good shall it be? Answers to these questions are partially contained in state law, in rulings of state officials, in decisions of local boards of education, in actions of local school officials and staff, in decisions of local voters, in individual choices of pupils and their parents. With all authority for education, under our system of government, arising out of state law, these laws provide the guide both for what must be offered and for what may be offered. Each decision successively closer to the individual pupil further determines what should be done and what may be done. The local school board acts within the limits and authority provided by state law. The local school officials act within the limits and authority granted by the local board. All of these decisions and rulings set the limits within which the individual pupil and his parents may make choices.

At any level of authority the action or decision may have an effect on what the educational program is, how much, and how good. Many times these decisions are made without sufficient consideration of the over-all program but rather in terms of a single aspect of it. The state should have some acceptance of a "foundation" program as a reference-point for decisions. The local school district needs a long range plan of development so that each decision is reached in a setting of relationships to its effect on the total program. The individual pupil needs to work out a vocational-

educational plan so that the choices he makes will be related to the ultimate accomplishment of his purposes.

"Foundation" programs have generally been studied in connection with the provision of state aid. Such "Foundation" statements describe the educational program which should be prevalent throughout the state as a common program, with a variety of extensions possible according to the needs and desires of specific communities and individuals. The items in such statements deal with three major questions: What educational program shall be offered? How much shall be offered? How good shall the offerings be? The degree to which such a statement touches upon all three questions may be illustrated by excerpts from the "Foundation" program proposed by an advisory commission to the governor of Illinois during the 1949 session of the legislature:

I. What constitutes a foundation program for the public schools of Illinois? The purposes of public education in Illinois can be only partially realized unless a sound basic program of education is provided and is made available for every child in the State without regard to residence. . . .

(1) A school term of at least nine months or 180 days. Schools operated for only eight months in the year deprive the elementary school child, in the course of his schooling, of a full year of educational opportunities . . . Some districts maintain terms of ten months. It is our firm conviction that a foundation program requires a minimum term of nine months.

(2) Adequate attendance procedures and records . . . Efficient recording of attendance and standard enforcement procedures through the services of trained personnel are essential to the safeguarding of the rights of the child to public education.

(3) Special teachers for special subjects and provision for good administrative supervision. Teachers with special training in art, music, and physical education are needed to provide a satisfactory program of general education. A professionally trained superintendent or principal with adequate clerical assistance is required to furnish educational leadership. . . .

(4) A good building with adequate sanitary facilities. . . .

(5) Suitable furniture, maps, globes, and equipment. . . .

(6) Proper library facilities, reference books, and magazines. . . .

(7) Teachers with at least four years of college training. . . .

(8) Adequate salaries for teachers with provisions for sick leave. The realization of the purposes of the foundation program in the State depends

to a greater extent on the qualifications and professional morale of teachers than any other single factor. A competent and well-satisfied staff of teachers for the schools of the State will be determined very largely by the salaries paid to teachers and the professional security which is provided. The State cannot expect its foundation program to be carried on successfully with a poorly qualified, dissatisfied, and demoralized teaching staff. The up-grading of the teaching staff is dependent upon good professional-training institutions, efficient educational leadership, and compensation for services equal at least to the average of all non-professional workers in the State.

(9) Good instruction in the fundamental subjects. Progress in school is determined very largely by the mastery of the tools of learning: reading, language arts, and arithmetic. Knowledge and skill in the teaching of these subjects, understanding of the learning processes, ability to diagnose the difficulties of pupils, and competency in providing remedial instruction are fundamental to successful teaching. The distinguishing characteristic of the foundation school program is the recognition and treatment of individual differences.

(10) Cultural courses such as music, art, and speech. These courses are required in the foundation and in most Illinois schools because of their cultural value. They are helpful to pupils in the development of desirable personal characteristics.

(11) Good training in citizenship and American history with the chance to develop good citizenship through participation in school organization. The foundation program involves the careful and inspiring study of American history and citizenship and the training of youth for participation in the civic activities and enterprises of community life. Through participation in school organizations and community activities the youth acquires the ability to use his knowledge skillfully in civic situations under school guidance and develops a keen appreciation of democratic processes. Through the fruitful knowledge made possible by the foundation program and through guided experience in bearing responsibility, the pupils are prepared for good citizenship and for the fullest and wisest use of the freedom afforded by the American way of life.

(12) Vocational training, including homemaking, industrial arts and crafts, and, in high schools, commercial subjects, and agriculture (where appropriate). In the foundation program all children are entitled to receive instruction in homemaking and the industrial arts. At the high-school level the offerings should be broad enough to provide learning experiences and the opportunity to develop some skill in the unspecialized processes of the occupational and vocational pursuits which the students may follow in their after-school lives.

(13) A satisfactory health and physical training program and good instruction in safety. The General Assembly has seen fit to make such training mandatory in the public schools of the State. Along with this should go regular physical examinations and follow-up work to insure the necessary medical and dental services. Such training also presupposes adequate physical facilities, suitable direction of recreational activities, and proper supervision. School lunches should be provided where needed.

(14) Extra-class activities and field trips. The education of children and youth goes on outside the school classroom—in the corridors, lunchroom, free play, and in the community. Best results are achieved when there is a close tie-up between the learning experiences of the class room and the extra-class activities in which the pupils engage. . .

(15) Provision for individual instruction for exceptional as well as normal children and counseling services for all pupils. The purpose of the foundation program should be the fullest development of the capacities possessed by all students during the period of their attendance in school. In order to accomplish this the individual must be made the unit in instruction and administration. Mass treatment in school is not sufficient. Effort should be put forth by the school to diagnose the needs of individual pupils and encourage the correction of disabilities and the development of the special resources which each pupil may have.

(16) Financial records of school income and expenditures, efficient purchasing, and proper maintenance and management of school properties. If the foundation program is to be effective, waste in school support must be eliminated, and every effort must be made to get full value received for the school children from the dollars provided by the State and local district. . . .

(17) Encouragement of community to make appropriate use of school building and grounds after school hours. Education should not end with school days. Adults should realize that the American school is the center of community life and that its facilities should be utilized in promoting adult education and recreation. . . .

(18) Transportation of pupils residing an excessive distance from a school. . . .

(19) The relation of pupils to teachers in the schools of the State. . . . This situation is a challenge to the foundation program and will continue to be until class size can be brought within the range of 25 to 35 pupils with the average not in excess of 30.

(20) Integration of the elementary school and high school program.

Since practically all elementary school pupils continue their work in high schools, it is fundamental in a foundation program for inarticulation between the programs of these two units of the school system to be eliminated to the greatest extent possible. . . .¹

An examination of the items listed by the advisory commission will show, in general, that items 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, and 17 are concerned with *what* education; items 1, 2, 16, and 18 are concerned with *how much*; and items 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 14, 15, 19, and 20 are concerned with *how good*.

Were the state to accept such a program as the goal for all its schools, the decisions on proposed state laws and the official act: of state school officials could be pointed toward realization of the program. A mere legal acceptance of a program as official for the state will not bring it into being. To realize such a program specific laws may be established setting up the required number of days of school for the year, the legal procedure for enforcing compulsory attendance, the level of training and kind of training for teachers through certification laws, minimum salary for teachers and allowable days of sick leave, a system of financial records, and the conditions under which transportation must be furnished to students. The state supervisory staff may establish standards for recognition or accreditation of schools. Extensions of the foundation program may be permitted by specific laws or may be implied within the scope of authority granted the local board of education.

Beyond the insistence that the mandates of the law be fulfilled and the direction which the state supervisory staff can give through suggestion and through recognition or accreditation standards, the state may influence local decisions through stimulation of special programs. Generally this stimulation is provided through special financial assistance, some of it on the basis of available federal funds. Local communities may be persuaded to offer vocational programs, school lunch programs, and programs of special education because of the availability of federal and state funds for personnel and equipment. All of these decisions at the state level set the framework for decisions in local school districts.

Although the state determines the minimum number of days per year on which school must be held, the local community fixes the calendar dates of the school year and may determine to extend the school year beyond the minimum number of days required. The state may determine the definition

¹ "Report of Advisory Commission", *Illinois School Board Journal* (Second Quarter, 1949), pp. 53-56. Used by permission.

of a school day in number of hours, but the local community decides the times of day when sessions will convene and dismiss. The state may require so many minutes per week or so many sessions per year for instruction in physical education or in the harmful effects of alcohol and narcotics. The local community can determine when it will meet those requirements. Within the framework of minimum time requirements established by the state, the local community can determine the quantity in time of the educational program. Within the framework of subject areas required by state law, the local community can determine the quantity in terms of subject areas to be considered and the amount of material to be utilized. The local district must decide how much teacher time is available to each pupil, based on class size.

In its selection of teachers and provision of equipment, the local district does much to determine the kind of educational program. The same subject fields required by law may represent educational programs differing considerably in the manner in which they are taught. These required subject fields in a context of wide and varied courses and activities may represent a kind of education critically different from those in a context of courses and activities of a different order. Through the selection of textbooks and instructional materials the local community makes decisions about the kind of program to be offered. Through the instruments selected for evaluation and through the acceptance or rejection of state suggested standards for recognition or accreditation, the local community decides what kind of educational program it is to have. A visitor to schools throughout any state, all operating under the same state laws, will find the schools each different in accordance with the community in which each is situated and in terms of the many local decisions concerning the educational program.

How Shall the Schools Be Staffed?

The local community, working within the limits of state education laws and any laws relating to fair employment practices, has many decisions to make with respect to the staff for the school. The professional staff must be determined according to program needs. With the desirable educational program for the local community agreed upon, there remains the job of determining how many and what kinds of staff members are needed. The local community will decide what pupil-teacher ratio it wishes to support.

In a very small school district the choice is often one between reducing the breadth of the program to be offered or bearing the cost of a very low pupil-teacher ratio. Such a school system may require teachers who have training in more than one field of specialization so that they can teach more than one grade or subject and handle some of the activities of the school. The large school may also decide to employ staff members who have the breadth of training that makes flexibility of assignment possible.

The physical facilities available, or which can be made available, may condition community decisions about staff. There is not much point in employing shop teachers for whom no shop can be provided, nor visual-aids directors for whom no equipment or working space is to be available. Physical facilities will also help determine the size of the custodial and maintenance crew and the kinds of specialization which such a crew should represent. The local community will decide whether to employ its own maintenance men or to contract for maintenance work, and whether to employ health-service staff members or to make arrangements with existing local health or nursing districts. In terms of the spread of pupils over the district, the local community will determine what bus operators are needed and will give additional attention to staffing a school cafeteria. The number of pupils, the size of the staff, and the desire to have greatest service of professional people on professional jobs will help the local community decide upon employment of clerical workers.

The local community will determine its employment policy. It will decide what training (meeting certification requirements for employees in positions requiring certified personnel) and what experience it desires for each of the positions to be filled. It will determine what differences in salaries are to be made in recognition of training and experience. In terms of the current staff and the needs of the situation, the local school officials will make decisions about particular prospective staff members in terms of personality, and will determine what procedure is to be used in determining whether or not to promote a staff member and how to re-assign or dismiss those whose performance is not satisfactory. In making such decisions, problems like the following arise: To what extent should the local community seek staff members from a variety of communities and training institutions for the sake of cross stimulation? To what extent should the local community seek or avoid appointment of staff members reared in the community? Should it seek to maintain some balance of youth with

age, of men with women? Should it consider how well prospective employees may fit into the local community pattern? Should it avoid rigorously the employment of any who are related to others already employed?

What Physical Facilities Shall Be Made Available?

Decisions must be made with respect to provision of physical facilities. The local community will have to determine how many pupils are to be served, where they are located in the district, and how old they are. In terms of sheer numbers this provides a basis for thinking about how much school space for each age level should be provided and how it should be distributed throughout the community. A study which provides the basis for forecasting the number of pupils of various ages in the various possible attendance districts in the community provides a more desirable basis for decision. The kind of program to be offered presents requirements for physical facilities which must also be considered. The availability of possible school sites will further condition this decision.

When the community has determined the number and location of pupils of the respective age levels and has determined the educational program it plans to provide, it must decide the extent to which present physical facilities will house such a program. In terms of the inadequacies revealed through such consideration, the community will need to investigate and determine whether new buildings are required, additions to existing buildings, or alterations of existing buildings. Community decisions in these matters will be influenced by certain standards for physical facilities which have been set by the state. They will also be influenced by school housing standards proposed by national organizations and by the knowledge of what comparable schools in the state or area are undertaking.

How Shall the Schools Be Supported?

The local community must also concern itself with decisions about financing the educational program. Within the limits to which it may levy taxes and receive funds and within the legal regulations concerning the records to be kept, the reports to be made, and the audits to be accomplished, the local district must decide what financial controls it will establish for the handling of school funds. What records shall be kept? What

budgetary procedure shall be established? Who shall keep the records? Who shall be authorized to make purchases? Who shall be authorized to make payments? What restrictions shall be placed upon the ordering of services and materials? What kinds of items shall be bought currently and what kinds annually? To what extent shall competitive bids be required prior to placing orders for goods or services? What guarantees of responsibility shall bidders be required to furnish?

The local community will determine the extent to which it is willing to tax itself for the support of schools. In some districts in some states this decision is made annually as the local voters meet to consider the approval of the district budget and tax levy. In some districts in some states approval of an increase in rate represents lasting authority for the board of education to levy up to such a legally established rate, and the community votes directly on the tax rate only when an increase above the established rate is to be decided. In some communities in some districts, particularly in New England, the amount of school support is decided by the annual town meeting after the town board of finance has held an open hearing on budget proposals of all divisions or departments of local government. In such case the amount of money actually approved at the town meeting is for town expenses—a part of which is for school purposes. Through the election of assessors and members of the boards of tax review, the local community participates in decision-making about the rates and procedures of assessment and the establishment of equity in taxation.

Within the framework of state law the local community determines how to proceed when funds must be borrowed. It determines the extent to which a loan is to be negotiated through a term or installment purchase contract. It decides whether or not to issue bonds to provide funds for construction of school buildings and other capital improvements. In some cases it may decide to borrow money to set up a working cash fund or to finance a deficit incurred in current operation. Local officials may decide to register warrants against the school treasurer in anticipation of tax receipts as a means of borrowing. The district may be in a position to build up an operating balance to avoid borrowing, although in some states this is virtually impossible under present laws. It may plan to keep indebtedness on the basis of brief and limited loans so that as little school income as possible is used up in the payment of interest. It may operate on a deficit budget throughout.

The local district has a stake in state and federal aid to public schools. It makes decisions with respect to qualifying for general aid and especially with respect to qualifying for any special aid designed to stimulate development of particular aspects of the school program. The local district should also consider what proposals for state and federal aid should be supported or opposed by local residents as state and federal citizens. Only as residents of local districts are concerned with the needs of all local districts for state or federal aid can any realistic program of financial assistance from the state and federal funds be developed.

The making and execution of decisions at all levels concerning who is to be educated by the schools, what program is to be offered, how the school is to be staffed, how the school is to be housed and equipped, how the educational program is to be financed, constitute school administration. School administration is everybody's business. In the organization and structure of American education the responsibilities for making and carrying out decisions with respect to education are codified and allocated to various individuals and agencies, but all are related. The following chapters describe this organization and the relationships. Part Two (Chapters 8 to 18 inclusive) deals with the making and execution of the decisions this chapter has shown to be necessary.

Suggested Reading

Illini Survey Associates, *A Look at the Springfield Schools; a Report of the Survey of the Public Schools of Springfield, Missouri*. The Springfield schools have been leaders in modern education for many years. In 1947 a group of dissident parents demanded a survey to determine the degree of success of the educational program. This survey examined both public opinion and educational results. Its conclusions tended to support the modern program, but some improvements were suggested.

Lincoln (Nebraska) School District, Board of Education, *Report of the Coöperative Study of the Lincoln Schools, 1945-1946*. This survey reports the findings of fourteen members of the professional staff who worked under the close advisement of committees which included over 200 lay and professional members. The report is organized in a traditional manner, but the content under the several headings gains freshness from its closeness to the thinking of the people of Lincoln and of the teachers in the Lincoln schools.

Donald Ross Pugmire, *Oklahoma's Children and Their Schools, an Opportunity and an Obligation*. An exhaustive report of the needs of the schools of the state and of the ability of the state to meet them. It is comprised of three parts: a summary of progress to date; data, interpretations, and suggestions; and an appendix of supplementary materials and statistical tables.

The Effects of Local Community Life on the Development of Education

CHAPTER 4

School days are few and short. In most good communities schools are open for 180 days each year. A few provide education in the summer months and so hold school for about 250 days. The length of the school day is usually but three hours in the kindergarten and not over six hours in the elementary and secondary schools. If a child begins in the kindergarten and continues through the high school, graduating at the age of 17, he attends for only 13,500 out of the 148,920 hours he has lived. Out of the 6205 days of his life he will have spent only part of each of only 2340 days in school. He spends more time out of school than in school.

Of what the school tries to teach, it is probable that each child learns more out of the class than in it. Mary K. Smith¹ reports an average growth of 10,000 words in the vocabulary of children during the time they are in the first grade. The average yearly gain in vocabulary from grades one through twelve was found to be 5000 words. Many series of school readers contain fewer than 1000 new words per year. It is obvious that children learn most of their vocabulary from the radio, newspapers, magazines, and talking with adults.

¹ Mary K. Smith, "Measurement of the Size of General English Vocabulary through the Elementary Grades and High School," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, Volume 24, second half (1941), pp. 311-345. The figures given above are for words recognized.

Learning to Learn—A Primary Goal

Most students of education agree that those schools are most effective whose graduates continue to learn. Human knowledge is increasing by leaps and bounds. The more man knows, the more he can know. Each new discovery opens the way to more new discoveries. Tremendous vistas of new ideas, new principles, new information were opened by Aristotle, Galileo, Newton, and Einstein when they discovered better explanations of the world in which man lives. Copernicus, Mendelyev, and DeForest in the sciences; Dewey, Kant, Marx, and Bacon in philosophy; Toynbee, Spengler, and Beard in history, and many other scholars have produced ideas that have influenced the thinking of thousands of persons and the way of life of millions. And on the findings of each have been built whole new systems of thought and action, which have become part of man's knowledge.

But the part of a child's life spent in school is not increasing very much. The number of years of schooling climbs slowly upward in the United States, but it does not increase with anything like the dramatic rate at which knowledge increases. As a result, a smaller and smaller proportion of human knowledge can be learned in school. Despite improvement in textbooks and in teaching methods, the schools will continue to fall farther and farther behind in their attempt to keep up with the rapidly expanding amount of knowledge. Unless education has as a primary aim the development of people who will continue to learn after schooling is over, there is little hope that man will know enough to live intelligently in the complex world created by the dramatic increase in knowledge, and little chance that man will use to best advantage the knowledge available to him.

The goal of continued learning cannot be overemphasized. Having a job and caring for a family take far more time out of an adult's year than school-attendance takes from a child's year. Each can be done best by the people who learn most about doing it. Adults share in the government of the community, state, and nation. Their votes, their letters to their representatives, their organized campaigns, and their petitions are most effective when they have learned to carry on these activities intelligently.

Even though what they learned in school about social and political problems was good at that time, problems change, new proposals are discussed, and new ideas come to light. The people who have learned to study these, to get information about them, and to evaluate them critically will be the best citizens. So it is with all activities of adults. Choosing movies or television shows, watching sports events, being members of business or labor organizations, purchasing clothes, or any of the activities of adults are done best by those who can continue learning how to do them well. Few of these adult problems and activities can be taught fully while the individual is in school. Today men are concerned about war, economic security, medical care, atomic energy, and the conflict between labor and management. In their current forms, these are new problems—so new that they could not have been anticipated and included in the curriculum of the schools that educated today's adults.

The gap between the problems that must be solved by adults and the educational program in the schools is increasing annually. There are two reasons for this.

The first reason is the rapid advance of technology and the consequent disarrangements in society. The invention of and improvements in machines, coming from the new discoveries of science, are many and important. Each leads to many more goods or to new kinds of goods. As these goods are produced, conditions and modes of employment change; as the goods are consumed, conditions and modes of living change. And in each case the rate of change is increasing far more rapidly than schools can or should change.

Second, the age of the people of the United States is increasing as medical science prolongs life. A child born today has a reasonable chance to live to the age of seventy. Not many years ago his life expectancy was sixty. This increase in age means that the average adult is older today than was the average adult of fifty years ago, and so has been out of school for a longer period of time. What he learned in school is farther, in time, from the problems he must face than the learnings of his predecessors were from the problems of their day.

Education in a Community Setting

The gap between the problems of life and the problems of the school cannot be closed by attempting to include necessary knowledge in the curriculum, for no one can tell what knowledge will be necessary. It can only be closed by developing students who learn to seek and to use the knowledge necessary to the solution of the problems that impinge on them at any time. This attitude and ability can be developed best by experience. Students, like adults, learn how to do things by doing them. If they are to come to seek and use the knowledge necessary to solve problems that confront them, they must practice this part of their education. But the problems that impinge upon students are found at least as much in the community as in the school. Students try to solve these problems, whether or not the school encourages them to do so. As they do this, they begin to learn the necessity of knowing facts, people, sources of influence, centers of power, and other pertinent data in order to operate effectively as citizens of the community. As they leave school, and live and work in the community, their education continues. Much more of their total learning, at a mature age, has come from the community than from the school.

Since this is so, the good school plans its educational program so that students have early contact with the rich educational resources of the community. It includes the problems of the community in its curriculum, in order that students may have practice in seeking and using knowledge to solve them. This does not mean that the school gives pat answers to these problems, but rather that it uses the need for answers as a strong motivating device to get students to learn the procedures for getting answers. In and through the community arise many of the attitudes which will lead students to continue to learn after schooling ends.

In the good community it is recognized that the school should both use and supplement the educational resources of the community. These resources are of many kinds. The use of some of them involves difficult relationships in which members of the school staff must operate with consummate skill. Many of the resources are controlled by governmental agencies not always friendly to schools, or sometimes jealous of their own prerogatives. Other resources are controlled by private agencies

which may or may not wish them to be used by the schools. Still others are pushed upon the school by organizations which believe that they have already discovered the answers to problems and wish students to accept their answers. Some resources are owned by individuals or corporations. The owners and managers of these do not always understand the need for students to use them; or they believe that use by students would slow up production, reduce sales, or have some other adverse effect upon profits. Many of the individuals who control resources of one type or another attempt to influence the board of education.

A few words about some of the influences of the community and of community agencies on the school will illustrate the problems of the school board and the professional staff as they attempt to use the resources of the community in the educational program of the schools.

The Schools and Departments of Municipal Government

In each community, government agencies other than the schools are set up to do specific work for the people. There is the government of the community, usually with a legislative and an executive branch. There are the cultural agencies—the library, the art museum, and the concert departments. There are the recreational agencies—the parks, the playgrounds, the beaches, and the athletic fields. Each of these serves the people in a particular way and educates them as it serves them. Each, then, has an educative function as a corollary to its main one. And each tends to feel that this function is important. How, then, should the school, which is primarily an educative agency, be related to other governmental agencies, many of which have correlative educational functions?

One of the earmarks of good administration of any public agency is the prudent use of public funds. Those citizens who like to pay taxes for worthwhile projects do not like to see their money wasted by overlapping and duplication of effort among governmental agencies. And there are always some citizens who seem to resent strongly the paying of taxes. Often they have been able to use the existence of occasional waste as a reason for opposing further taxes for any and all purposes. Community planning, with the coöperation of the agencies of government, can eliminate much waste, particularly when this waste arises because many *agencies have legitimate* educational functions and are attempting to carry them on without consulting other agencies with similar functions.

The schools should be among the first to seek to coöperate in community planning in order to insure the prudent use of public funds. This can and should become a part of the way in which they use the resources of the community to educate people. In most communities the schools are independent of the municipal government, while most other public agencies are under its control. This independence does not exist in order to free the schools from the need of coöperating with other governmental agencies, although it has sometimes been used for this purpose. At times educational leaders have used the traditional independence of public education to add to the program of the school at the expense of municipal departments. At times they have used it to retard or prevent the development, by other agencies, of programs which they wished to be eventually a part of the program of the school and under their control. Such actions, although relatively common, are far from universal. Most professional staff members are sincerely concerned about the welfare of the whole community and coöperate with other agencies toward this end. They recognize the educative opportunities in the community and seek to utilize as many as possible to serve the students in school.

Conversely, some heads of municipal departments seek to gain control of parts of the school program in order to add to their power and prestige. Questions about who should determine the health program of the school, who should handle truancy and delinquency, who should be in charge of safety patrols, and other similar ones are sure to arise whenever the basic laws of the state are not clear. These questions are serious only if made so by competition between and among administrators, agencies, and boards. They are not serious and may even become avenues for improvement if they are made the basis for coöperative action for the benefit of the total community. Some of these questions are dealt with in the next few pages.

The Public Library. In most good communities of adequate wealth and size there is a library in each school. The libraries are used by the students as sources for information and enjoyment. Teachers usually find professional books in them. Occasionally some of them are used by parents or other adults in the neighborhood. The person in charge of the library is usually a trained librarian or a trained teacher. It is most desirable that he have both kinds of training.

For whom should he work? The public library or the school? If the public library serves the whole community, including the schools, it is

duplicating services already provided by another agency. If the school libraries serve the community, they are duplicating the services of the public library. In a single neighborhood only one library and one library staff are needed. Since the schools are located strategically throughout the community, they are excellent places for branch public libraries. It should be unnecessary to duplicate buildings in order to serve two agencies, yet this often happens. Even when the library is located in the school building and operated by the library, difficulties arise because the salaries of librarians are usually lower than those of teachers with comparable training and experience. This tends to create dissatisfaction. It has led, at times, to a demand that the library be transferred to the school system.

The problem is complicated further by the need for educating children and adults in the use of the public library. If they are to continue to learn, they will find much that they need to know in this institution. If they are to enjoy their leisure time fully, they need to learn to select books, records, and films from the available collections. If the school library is not a branch of the public library, teachers must take children to the public library frequently so that they may learn how to use its facilities. Even when a branch of the library is in the school, occasional trips to the main library are desirable, for its resources far exceed those of any branch.

The library usually sponsors lectures about timely topics and about books, has book clubs at which recent publications are reviewed, and is engaged in adult education. The school may also include many similar activities in its program of adult education. Both agencies have important functions in this area and, thus, good reason to coöperate.

The Department of Public Health. Everyone wants children to be strong, vigorous, and free from disease. In the good community, each school has a nurse, an isolation room for children who are ill while in school, a room for medical examinations and records which the nurse may use as an office, and a room in which overtired children may rest. The school doctor comes to the school on call when there is suspicion of contagious disease. He also comes on schedule to examine each child periodically. He usually immunizes children against smallpox and diphtheria, supervises their being x-rayed by the traveling chest clinic, and refers them to their family physician whenever they need treatment.

In some schools facilities are available for a well-baby clinic to which

the mothers of the neighborhood bring their infants for immunization and examination. The physician advises them about problems of behavior, diet, and health, and refers them to the family physician if treatment is indicated. The good school also has a dental office in which the school dentist examines the teeth of children, referring them to the family dentist for treatment if it is indicated or repairing teeth if the family cannot afford a private dentist. In some communities the school dentist repairs the deciduous teeth of all children.

But the department of public health has the responsibility for the health of the community. It employs doctors, dentists, and nurses who provide service to many who cannot afford private care. It immunizes adults and children against diphtheria and small-pox. It operates well-baby clinics, chest x-rays, nutrition clinics, and the like. It has centers in many neighborhoods of the community to which people can go for advice and help. In addition it has authority to eliminate conditions which might endanger the health of the people. It can, and sometimes does, force schools to close during epidemics. It determines the length of time that teachers and children must remain away from school after being ill with contagious disease, and regulates periods of quarantine. It establishes rules for the disposal of garbage, sewage, and other refuse. It draws up regulations about the way in which food must be prepared and served in cafeterias and restaurants. It examines food handlers to determine whether or not they may work in their trade.

All these activities impinge upon the school. All are important to the health of the community. Many are rich in educative experience if the school is wise enough to capitalize on them. If students are to understand how to solve the problems of living healthfully in a modern community, they must have ready access to the operations of the department of public health as a field laboratory in which they may learn as they observe.

It is clear that some of the activities of the health department are duplicated by the school, and vice versa. Many questions arise. Is there need for two sets of nurses, dentists, and physicians? If not, who should employ the ones needed? Should the school doctor or the public health doctor decide that a child should remain away from school? Should the employees in one department be paid the same as ones with similar training and experience in the other department? These questions can lead to conflict if the people who ask them wish to contend. They can lead to improvement if those who ask them wish to coöperate to get improvement.

The Police Department. As students go to and from school, they cross streets and highways. If they come from longer distances, they ride on buses or use the family car. If the stream of children is to flow safely, it must be protected against carelessness. In every good community the protection of the young against traffic hazards is a serious problem. If protection is furnished by the police, there is a peak demand for manpower during a few short periods of the day which cannot usually be met by the regular force; or if it is met, many officers have little to do during the rest of the day.

It is occasionally suggested that employees of the schools be inducted into the police force as special officers in order to have manpower at critical times. In some communities adults volunteer to serve as additional officers; in others, the schools organize junior safety patrols among the students. In still others the opening and closing times of each school are different from those of other schools in order to distribute the amount of child pedestrian traffic over a longer period of time. Various combinations of these procedures are used in many communities. Whatever the methods used to reduce traffic hazards for children they involve both the police department and the schools, since one has the responsibility for enforcing traffic laws and the other has the responsibility for children on the way to and from school.

In every state the law requires children between specified ages to attend school. In most states the parents, the truant child, and adults contributing to the truancy of a child may be punished if found guilty by the courts. Compulsory attendance laws must be enforced if all children are to be educated. In many communities the enforcement of these laws is the responsibility of the schools through attendance officers. Some schools use police officers as truant officers during their time off. Some use sheriffs, deputy sheriffs, constables, or other officers. Some assign this work to a few teachers as part of their duties. The responsibility for enforcing the laws about school attendance must be definitely placed with the schools in every community, or it falls on the police.

Children violate other laws as well. Theft, employment in occupations not legal for minors, and running away from home are among the most common delinquent acts of children. The number and variety of the offenses of children are about the same as those of adults. Yet the problem of correction is vastly different. The child is, or can be, in school and is

susceptible to all its good influences. Adults are out of school and are not readily subjected to the influence of education. If the young are to learn to live better, the school has a real responsibility in the rehabilitation of delinquents. But the arresting power is with the police. It is usually within their province to decide when a child shall be brought into court. Once before the court, the judge has the power to determine what shall be done, where the child shall live, where he shall attend school. In the good community the juvenile court works closely with the schools in order that both may bring their full efforts to bear upon helping children.

Since the problems of traffic safety, school attendance, and delinquency involve both the police department and the schools, many questions arise. Who shall select and pay special officers? Who shall train the junior safety patrol? Who shall deal with truants? Who shall determine when delinquents should be punished and when they should receive re-education? Shall attendance officers and police officers receive the same pay? If the people in the school and in the police department seek to protect vested interests, these problems can lead to contention.

Problems of traffic control, school attendance, and delinquency are major problems in any community; therefore, they must become part of the school curriculum if people are to learn how to acquire the facts necessary to their solution. Such unsolved problems of the community are among the richest resources the schools can have. Police departments usually recognize that they have an educative function. Many of them have films used to help children and adults understand the law. Many send officers to speak at gatherings in order to help citizens of all ages know the problems of the community. Some of them hold classes, particularly in athletics, through organizations like the Police Athletic League. These may duplicate offerings of the school unless there is wise cooperation.

The Fire Department. Fortunately there are very few fires in public school buildings, and even fewer deaths and injuries from fires. This is the result of unusual care by teachers and principals of schools; for the physical condition of most of the school buildings in this nation and the provisions for escape of children even from reasonably good buildings are such as to be fraught with danger. The excellent record is due to constant vigilance rather than to intelligent foresight in construction. The schools and the fire department share the grave responsibility of protecting children who live for a part of each day in a dangerous environment.

In order to carry out its main purpose of protecting people and property from the hazards of fire, the fire department frequently has a dual function. It attempts to prevent fires by inspection of buildings to eliminate hazards and by regulating the types of construction which may be used for particular purposes. In doing this it may require that all plans for construction and remodeling be approved by it. It also extinguishes fires, endeavors to discover how each started, and apprehends individuals who have been responsible for fires. In some communities it has only the responsibility of putting out fires, the other responsibilities being carried out by another department, such as that of building inspection. The following discussion deals with a fire department which has all the above-mentioned responsibilities.

If children are to leave a burning building quickly enough to avoid injury, they must practice this frequently. Most schools require fire drills at least once a month. In some schools a usual exit is blocked in order to simulate a possible hazard which might exist at the time of a fire. Planning the route to be taken from any room to the outside under various conditions is expert technical work. Some parts of a building will burn more rapidly than others. Other parts of the building will act as a flue to draw smoke and flames into them. The route children will take should be planned with these facts in mind. Fire departments can usually provide this expert advice. They also can determine the maximum time, in terms of a reasonable margin of safety, for evacuating a building in case of fire.

At times groups of persons in a building have become hysterical and stampeded when a fire started in the building. This is one of the dangers against which constant precaution must be taken. Usually the fire department determines the maximum number of persons who can assemble safely in a given room. This affects the attendance at basketball games, plays, school assemblies, and other educational gatherings. There is constant temptation to crowd in just a few more people in order to satisfy them, or to make a bit more money.

Fire protection, with its attendant problems of inspection, prevention, and the control of crowds is a major problem of most communities. Students in the kindergarten can begin to use this problem as part of the curriculum of the school. Visits to the fire station are common. As the child progresses through school, he can be led to seek more and more of the knowledge necessary to help solve the problem in his home and his neighborhood.

The fire department, on the other hand, knows that it cannot reduce fires solely through inspection and enforcement of laws. Therefore, it usually conducts educational programs through films, speakers, posters, and occasional classes for workers in hazardous industries.

The General Problem of Relationship with Municipal Agencies

The brief descriptions of some of the problems of interrelationship between schools and the library, schools and the fire department, schools and the police department, and schools and the department of public health are not intended to be complete. Nor are these the only departments with which the school will be involved. The illustrations serve only to point up the general problem with which the school staff must deal. The general problem is that of developing coöperative interaction among municipal agencies and the public schools so that public funds will be spent prudently, services will be rendered efficiently, children and adults will be using the resources of these agencies in order to acquire the knowledge necessary to the solution of immediate problems, and the educative function of the agencies will be carried on effectively.

This problem is at the heart of most communities. If it is solved successfully, the internal bonds of the community are strengthened. There is an attitude of seeking continual improvement. There is a feeling of solidarity. There is a sense of accomplishment. And all of these are found in the best communities today. They arise because men and women of good will, who are the responsible heads of the departments of government and of education, seek to find ways of bettering the lives of children and adults through coöperation rather than through competition. These administrative heads are not jealous of personal prerogative nor of departmental rights. They seek only to get the most possible done in the best way with a prudent expenditure of funds.

The Role of the School Staff. Coöperation can come only when the people who are concerned with common problems meet and seek to solve them. The school staff, in providing educational leadership for a community, needs to discover the degree of coöperation existing among publicly supported and controlled agencies. This can be done by talking with people who head them, with members of boards that control them, and with community leaders who understand them. Usually such investigation

will reveal one of three general types of relations: independent and uncoordinated action, running all the way from open conflict to indifference; sporadic coöperation, usually arising when particular enterprises call for it; and planned coöperation on a continuous basis, either through informal action of the administrative heads or through a formal council approved by the governing boards.

In the first instance, that of lack of coöperation, the efforts of the school staff should be bent toward understanding thoroughly the reasons for this lack. Has there been an unsuccessful attempt to secure coöperation in the past? Why was it unsuccessful? Are the same forces still in existence? What person or what municipal agency has the power to overcome these forces? How can this power be brought to bear on the situation? An analysis of the situation must be made thoroughly and without haste in order that appropriate steps may be taken to improve conditions. Precipitate action without adequate information may intensify existing conflict and ~~retard~~ retard the development of coöperation. Frequently it will be best to encourage others to take the initiative in bringing persons together to discuss particular problems in which several departments are involved. It is possible to arrange discussion meetings for representatives of each governing board or commission. Meanwhile, the school administrator should be alert to consult with the heads of municipal departments whenever opportunities arise, thus laying the groundwork for future coöperation on a broader base.

It may well be that, by using frequent consultation on specific problems, and by seeking some problems involving the schools and two or more municipal departments at the same time, the administrator can establish the beginnings of a coöperative relationship. While bending his efforts toward coöperation on specific problems, he should work toward a permanent organization, either formal or informal, of the administrative heads, which will meet regularly and discuss the ways they can work together in order to get the work of each done in the best interests of the total community.

In the second situation, where there is sporadic coöperation, the school authorities will again make a careful analysis of the situation, while seeking every opportunity to coöperate on specific problems. Opportunities will be sought for bringing several administrative heads together whenever there is a real reason for doing so. Again, efforts should be made toward establishing a permanent organization which will meet regularly.

In the third situation, where a permanent organization exists, the educational leader should fit into his appropriate place. He should bring to the meetings all school problems where there is any possibility of another department being involved, and should discuss intelligently all problems which others present. A permanent organization of the administrative heads of municipal departments is frequently called an administrative council. It has no legal authority.

Because the school representative is an employee of a board of education, he may not be able to agree to changes as readily as the heads of departments not subject to similar control. Occasionally a step which he thinks is desirable as a result of discussion with the administrative council of the community may not be acceptable to the board. Unless these limitations on the school administrator are recognized at the outset by the other community officials, they may lead to the feeling that the schools will not cooperate. One good way to prevent such an attitude is to have the procedures of the council set down in writing and approved by all of the boards and department heads.

Such a document should include the following items:

1. Name of the administrative council,
2. Purpose of the council,
3. Membership of the council,
4. Officers of the council and the method of selecting them,
5. Procedure for getting questions before the council,
6. Necessity of referral of certain types of items to appropriate boards for advice,
7. Necessity of referring certain types of items to boards for action,
8. Time and date of meeting,
9. Order of business at a meeting.

If there is no such document in existence, the school representative should suggest that one be prepared and presented to the board of education for approval. When this has been made a matter of formal public record, there is far less opportunity for subsequent misunderstanding.

The School's Relations with Voluntary Organizations and Agencies in the Community

Every community has many voluntary organizations, which exist for many purposes. Some, such as bowling leagues or bridge clubs, provide relaxation and fun for the membership. Some combine fun with patriotic aims and with community betterment—for example, the American Legion, the Veterans of Foreign Wars, and the Daughters of the American Revolution. Others are made up of persons with an interest in some part of the economic life of the community—the labor unions, the chamber of commerce, and the manufacturers associations. Then there are the service clubs, such as Rotary, Lions, Kiwanis, and Exchange; and women's organizations, like the League of Women Voters, the American Association of University Women, and The Association of Business and Professional Women. There are youth-serving agencies such as the YMCA, YWCA, YMHA, YWHA, CYO, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp-fire Girls, and a host of others. There are fraternal organizations like the Knights of Columbus, the Odd-Fellows, the Masons, and the Elks, most of which have an affiliated organization for women. Neighborhood clubs of various kinds meet the needs of people in particular localities. Organizations such as the Red Cross and the Catholic Welfare League help the ill, the indigent, or the stricken. There are organizations with a primary interest in education, such as the Parent-Teacher Association and the local teachers groups.

The typical American community has many different kinds of organizations which impinge on the school for many different purposes. Some have educational programs they wish the schools to use. Some sponsor contests they wish school children to enter. Some wish to use children to raise money. Some wish to put on programs at the school. Some wish to help the schools participate in the celebration of national holidays; others wish to help the schools and the community understand each other better; still others wish to work with the schools so that both may serve the community better.

The Parent-Teacher Association. The PTA, as it is commonly called, is national in scope, having headquarters in Washington, D.C., a state organization in forty-eight states, and local organizations in thousands of

communities. Its purpose will be presented more fully in Chapter 6. Here it is examined at the local level as one of the ways in which the life of a community affects education.

The local unit of the Parent-Teacher Association is, typically, the organization at a single school building. Each unit is made up of the parents and teachers who wish to assist in its purposes. Typically, most of the parents who attend meetings are mothers, although there are occasional marked exceptions to this. The meetings are usually educational in nature, and include a brief business meeting. Many local units have study groups for parents in order that they may learn more about children and about schools. Frequently these are led by a teacher, although skilled parents also assist in this work.

The local associations are usually affiliated with a community parent-teacher council. The community council helps to train new officers, deals with community-wide problems, and helps to coördinate the activities of the local associations. It is usually the official spokesman of the parent-teacher association when dealing with the superintendent and board of education.

Parent-teacher associations have been criticized as undesirable for various reasons: as interfering with the operations of the school, as substituting pressure for professional judgment, as demanding too much child's time in preparation for programs to entertain the membership, as spending all their efforts in raising money, and for numerous other unfortunate actions. Probably most of these criticisms are true of some associations. The annual school carnival to raise money is far too common. It usually is an affair where the children do most of the work and the PTA claims most of the credit and all the money. True, it uses the money to buy projectors or phonographs or other equipment for the school, but this does not justify the activity. It would be far better for children, in the long run, if the effort went into developing the kind of public support out of taxes which would provide necessary equipment in all schools, rather than having the equipment come from fund raising, always a more successful activity in a wealthy neighborhood than in a poor one.

But parent-teacher associations are not supposed to be fund-raising agencies. All of the purposes and policies of the national organization are opposed to this. In fact, where they have become so, the reason has more frequently been faulty leadership by school staff members than faulty intent on the part of the parents. Local associations tend to become what

the principal of the school seeks to have them become. They will interfere if he operates the kind of school in which parents are not welcome or where their ideas are rejected. They will spend their meetings in entertainment if he encourages them to use children for this purpose in order to insure attendance. They will develop good study groups for understanding children if he encourages teachers and parents to meet together for this purpose. And what is true of the principal is true of the superintendent in his relations with the community parent-teacher council. As a trained educational leader he can help it to become what it really wants to be—a strong interpreter and supporter of good education.

The wise administrator is a member of the parent-teacher association that serves the school to which he is assigned and of the parent-teacher associations that serve the schools his children attend. He is present at all meetings of the associations. As a member he keeps himself fully informed about the aims of the movement. He uses his influence, which is considerable, to get his association to do what it can to fulfill the aims of the national organization as they are fitted into the needs of the local community. As he does this, he will find that he has assisted materially in the development of a group of informed adults who understand the needs of the community and the possibilities of meeting these needs through public education, and who will work to improve the public schools.

Social Service and Welfare Agencies. In the good community the social service and welfare agencies have joined together to form a social service council. This council serves as a planning center for joint enterprises, works with the community chest in planning budgets and campaigns for funds, and arranges for the exchange of information about people who are being assisted. Usually the welfare department of the community is a member of such a council. The schools should be a member, particularly if they are doing counseling, home instruction, or remedial work with delinquent or disturbed youths.

The social service council usually plans "Go and See" trips in order that citizens may be informed of the work its member agencies are doing. These trips can become a valuable part of the education of children. Visits to homes for the aged, hospitals for crippled children, jails, clinics, and the like, when they are preceded by careful preparation in what to see and followed by thorough study of what was seen, can produce better under-

standing of the community and of the need for getting more knowledge in order that community problems may be solved.

Each board of education should adopt rules and regulations governing the raising of money in schools for out-of-school purposes. Each year the number of campaigns and requests for campaigns increases. Community Chest, March of Dimes, Red Cross, Easter seals, Christmas seals, and campaigns for capital funds for buildings are common. Requests to allow the sale of tickets for almost every type of activity are in the daily mail of most superintendents. A statement of public policy should protect children from pressure and exploitation. It should prevent their being used to put pressure on the home to contribute larger sums than it ordinarily would. There should be no compulsion about giving to any campaign. Contributing should be considered privilege and not a duty. Whatever is done by the schools should emphasize the privilege of assisting the community through the social service agencies. And not only are regulations of this nature in the interests of children; they are also of assistance to the school in its relations with social service or welfare agencies. They establish the firm groundwork on which coöperation rests.

Many of the individual agencies have educational programs which may be of value to the schools. Information about them should be made available to teachers and students. While none should be required in the school, those which are best will be used widely if information about them is disseminated widely.

Agencies Serving Children and Youth. Organizations like the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls, 4-H Clubs, Girl Reserves, and HI-Y provide desirable social and recreational opportunities for young people. Each is characterized by selecting the membership of its units from a neighborhood. Usually these neighborhoods are those served by an elementary school, or a high school, although frequently a neighborhood served by a church is also used.

The good school has facilities that can be used to advantage by many of these organizations. Such use should be encouraged. There should be a well formulated statement of public policy about the use of schools, which should make the schools available without cost to youth organizations for all affairs at which no admission is charged or at which there are no fund-raising activities. Bulletin boards for notices of meetings or programs of these organizations should be provided in each school. Many

of these organizations have programs of educational value, leading to awards for members. Some of these programs can be carried on appropriately during school hours, particularly when they are related to a handicraft which the school teaches. Others may supplement and add to the work of the school. Each school administrator should make sure that there is a ready channel of communication between the leaders of youth groups and the faculty so that the work of each may complement the work of the other.

While most youth agencies have adequate training programs for prospective leaders, the tendency to use teachers in this capacity is still great. No school system should appear in any way to expect teachers to lead a youth organization unless this is part of the job and time is allowed for it out of the regular school day. The community needs to have many persons who are interested in young people and who will give time to help them. If the community begins to believe that it has discharged its responsibility to youth by employing teachers to lead them, then it will have begun to deteriorate. Communities remain vigorous only as they renew their leadership of social enterprises by the training of more and more people. They do not remain vigorous when there is dearth of willing hands to help in improvement.

Special-Interest Groups. It is difficult to find a term under which to categorize organizations as different as the American Legion and the Chamber of Commerce, without offending some among them. By a special-interest group is meant one whose membership comes together because of its desire to secure improvement in a limited area of community living, or because of its desire to further the economic success of its members, or because of its desire to perpetuate a prescribed system of ideals. Each has a special interest in achieving its own purposes. Many of these purposes are good, in that they serve the needs of the total community and serve to improve the living of man. Even those purposes which are not accepted universally are endorsed by the organization because its members believe that life would be better if more persons accepted their point of view.

There are no special groups, even the subversive ones, which do not believe that they are working to better the lot of someone. And as all recognize that the schools are a powerful agency in changing the thinking of the young, they try to influence them. This complicates the problem of

relationships for the school system. Unlike the social and welfare agencies, the school cannot work with all of them, and yet there is no ready way to distinguish those which, in the long run, will be helpful to children from those which will be harmful. It is easy to make selections at the extremes. The local chamber of commerce, the local labor council, the local post of the American Legion, are obviously worthwhile. At the other end, the Klu Klux Klan, the Knights of the White Camelia, and the American Youth for Democracy are obviously harmful and should be avoided.

But the difficulty comes when the choice moves away from the extremes. There is no simple criterion to use for selecting the organizations with which the school will coöperate. The most usable one is the judgment of the board of education. This body is made up of representatives of the community who are concerned about the welfare of young people. It will explore the purposes of organizations with care and select those it believes to be safe. Usually it will be over-conservative in its choices, but this cannot be helped. The professional staff should give the board advice, but should expect the board members to make the decision for the community.

This statement of public policy should be disseminated widely in the community and in the schools. It should list the organizations in the community with which the schools will coöperate, and should state how and at what times an organization may request inclusion in the list. It should describe the nature of the coöperation with each organization which has a specific program. For example, the Daughters of the American Revolution give a medal for excellence in American History; the American Legion sponsors an oratorical contest. These and similar proposals should be examined by the professional staff of the schools and an agreement about procedures reached which will be acceptable to all and which can be recommended for adoption by the board. The statement of policy should also include the conditions under which organizations may participate in assembly programs at schools, and when students may be out of school to participate in the activities of the organizations.

In general, all contests should be open to any student in the public schools, winners should be selected by competent judges on a fair and impartial basis, awards should be made in a simple and dignified manner. The school should not undertake to coach individual students for contests, nor should it require all students to take part in them. Special effort should be made to reduce or eliminate essay contests. Most large school

systems have a small group of students who become professional entrants in essay contests and who win most of the prizes. Moreover, there is no quicker way to discourage a student's interest in a desirable activity than by making him sit down and write about it when he has no interest in doing so.

It is difficult to establish a coöperative atmosphere with special-interest groups. By their very nature they tend to have specific answers to general problems. The school, by its nature, must seek general answers to these problems. The issues get confused in terminology and often result in name-calling. A school administrator who is a devoted patriot may have many professional misgivings about the educational desirability of selecting one girl as an outstanding citizen, yet if he refuses to recommend the participation of the schools in this program, he is occasionally labeled unpatriotic—or worse. If he questions the value of an essay contest sponsored by the Junior Chamber of Commerce during Fire Prevention Week, he is occasionally termed behind the times or an obstructionist who is preventing the chamber from carrying out its responsibilities to its national headquarters. Patience is necessary. Getting each group to consider the real purpose of the schools, the improvement of young people as citizens and as individuals, will slowly lead to change in attitude. It is better to encourage a school board to pick and choose in order that the resources of organizations demonstrably good can be used by the schools, than to eliminate all relations with them. And yet the latter alternative has occasionally looked good to a harassed administrator trying to explain that spelling contests do not produce improved spellers, particularly as they give practice only to those who are already good spellers.

The School Board as Representatives of the People

The public school administrator should keep ever in mind that the school board is the most effective means for the community to influence the development of education. Community influences are felt through the interrelationships among administrative heads. They are present in social service councils. They are a contribution of the parent-teacher associations. They are exerted through the pressures of special interest groups. But these are chance relationships, or planned relationships in special areas. None has the legal authority to improve the support of

schools. In this nation the lay board has come to be the controlling authority in public education.

Methods of Selecting Boards of Education

The 1946 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, *School Boards in Action*, reports as follows:

Most school board members are selected by popular election. Some are appointed by mayors; others by state officials. Nearly 85 percent (84.5 per cent) of the boards studied by the Research Division of the National Education Association are elected by the people of their communities; 15.5 per cent are appointed boards. In villages under 2500 in population and in rural town, township, and union districts, 9 in 10 boards are elected. Appointment is most frequently used (2 in 10) in the city systems and in county or parish boards (3 in 10). Candidates at large, elected at special school elections on a purely non-partisan ticket, are likely to feel independent of pressures and special interests, and to be able to make decisions solely for the welfare of the schools. Members elected by wards are likely to feel responsibility to the wards they represent. When appointments are made by mayors, governors, or judges, the board members chosen may be independent in their attitude or not, depending on whether an issue is at stake affecting their appointment.

In 59.3 per cent of the cases reported to the NEA Research Division the school board is chosen at a special election; in 38.6 per cent the school election is combined with a general election; in 2.1 per cent both special and general elections are used. Special elections are most frequently used in cities under 100,000 population, villages, and small rural districts. Combinations with general elections occur in a majority of the large city, county, and rural town boards. In 86 per cent of the cases school elections use a non-partisan ballot. Very little difference on this point is shown by the reports for cities of various sizes or urban as compared with rural-school systems.

In the case of elected boards, 85.7 per cent are elected to represent the school district as a whole; 10.7 per cent represent wards and boroughs; 3.6 per cent represent both the whole district and subdivisions. The ward or subdistrict plan is most common in county and parish boards (at least 4 in 10); next most common in union high-school districts (2 in 10); next most common in large cities (1 in 10); and least common in villages and small rural districts.

Appointed city school boards are most likely to be chosen by councilmen or aldermen (65.1 per cent) or by the mayor (26.1 per cent). Only the county and township boards in rural areas show a relatively large amount of

appointment, and this power is usually exercised by a special appointing board. Other types with power to appoint school board members are judges (or panel of judges), the county board, the state legislature, the governor, the county court, the grand jury, and the county superintendent. On this point state and regional practices produced many of these variations.

In practice, both good and bad results have come from almost every known method of selecting school board members. Whatever the method used, it seems wise to safeguard the board from quick or sudden turnover in membership by a system of overlapping terms. When a community or an appointing official is prevented in this manner from suddenly changing the whole or the majority of the school board membership, upheavals based on strong feelings or the whims of politically minded appointing officials may be neutralized or at least minimized.²

Even if good results can come from any type of board, if there are good people on it, it is best to have an elected board. No activity as important as public education should be removed from the control of the people, as tends to happen with an appointed board.

The Internal Organization of the Board

At the first meeting after an election, or at the legally designated time, the board should meet to elect its officers. The usual officers are a president or chairman, and a secretary. Occasionally a treasurer is required. If the law allows the election of a person outside of the board as secretary, the superintendent of schools should be chosen for the position. In any event, the work of taking the records at a meeting should be carried on by a person from his office staff who will prepare the minutes under the direction of the secretary.

It is generally recognized that standing committees of the board are undesirable. They frequently result in logrolling of an undesirable type. A report of the National Education Association³ shows that the use of standing committees is far more common in cities than in non-city districts. The report goes on to say: "For three decades the trend has been to abolish all standing committees, but still there is considerable distance to go before all boards have eliminated them."

² American Association of School Administrators, Twenty-fourth Yearbook, *School Boards in Action* (National Education Association, 1946), pp. 30-32. Used by permission.

³ "Status and Practices of Boards of Education," *N.E.A. Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXIV, No. 2 (April, 1946), pp. 47-83.

A brief analysis of the effect of standing committees on the action of the board shows clearly that they are not helpful. In fact, they probably persist more because of the prestige which each chairman thinks is his than for any other reason.

Such a committee has a minority or a bare majority of the board on it. If it operates faithfully, it is well informed in its area. Its proposals are presented to the board as a whole, at which time one of two courses of action is taken. The board may accept the report without discussion. This is usually the result of members of one committee agreeing to vote for the proposals of another committee if the members of the second committee will vote for the proposals of the first. It is also the result of the board as a whole getting into the habit of accepting committee reports without careful scrutiny. It may come from the assumption on the part of the board that the committee are the experts in the matter and that their recommendations are bound to be good. All of these are bad.

Another way of action is that of spending enough time discussing the report for all of the members to become well informed. This is about as time-consuming as was the original procedure of the sub-committee in arriving at the report. The members of this committee are going over old and familiar problems. They are spending more time on them than they would have if the board as a whole had tackled the problem in the first place. This is a waste of their time and may discourage able persons from serving on the board.

The use of standing committees of the board tends to get the board in the habit of referring proposals to them for study. In most instances these proposals should be studied by the professional staff of the school, for they involve education. Furthermore, standing committees are a burden on the school staff. The professional staff may be called upon to meet with several such committees, which is poor use of the staff's time, or may be asked to make recommendations to them. These recommendations are discussed in their absence which is an improper relation between the staff and the board; or if the staff does not attend meetings of sub-committees, it may be unaware of important recommendations until encountering them at a board meeting. The good board refers matters to the school staff and secures their recommendation through the superintendent before taking action. It recognizes that it is elected to carry on its duties as a board and does not abandon any of them to a portion of its membership.

Choosing the Professional Staff

The Twenty-fourth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators states:

Longer average tenure for school superintendents will reduce the frequency of, but not remove, the necessity of hiring a new superintendent from time to time. No task confronted by a board of education can be more important than that of obtaining a highly competent executive head when a vacancy in that office arises.

In recent years many boards of education, faced with the problem of employing a new superintendent of schools, have rejected the hit-or-miss methods too commonly used in the past and have at least tried something different. Not enough of these newer and experimental efforts have been recorded yet to reveal principles and procedures of fully proved reliability.⁴

This Yearbook goes on to suggest eleven principles and procedures to be used in the selection of a superintendent. These can be summarized as follows:

1. The board of education draws up a set of standards or criteria to cover the qualifications desired.
2. The board decides whether there is an employee in the system who is amply qualified for the position.
3. The board appoints a screening committee to search for and sort candidates according to the quality of their records and to recommend a small group for final consideration by the board. Such a committee should include one or more educators familiar with the techniques of evaluating professional training and experience.
4. The screening committee should be provided with clerical help.
5. The chief function of the screening committee is to conduct a search for candidates of high caliber rather than to wait for them to appear.
6. All applications, written and personal, should funnel through the screening committee.

⁴ American Association of School Administrators, Twenty-fourth Yearbook, *School Boards in Action* (National Education Association, 1946), pp. 69-70. Used by permission.

7. Making applications in person should be discouraged by the screening committee until after it has had time to review the records well enough to determine which candidates have some chance to be considered seriously.
8. The committee will need to secure information in addition to that usually provided by credentials from a placement bureau. This information should be directed toward measuring a candidate against the criteria that have been set up.
9. In the semifinal work of the screening committee, personal interviews should be held with several of the most promising candidates, invited to come at the expense of the district.
10. It is usually desirable for the committee to visit the communities where a few of the topmost candidates have lived and worked.
11. The screening committee should let the board as a whole choose among a few of the top ranking candidates.⁵

The procedure recommended by the American Association of School Administrators is an excellent one, but it has one defect. It is far better for any local candidate to be screened through the entire process rather than to be selected at point two. When he is chosen as a result of the comparison of his abilities and training with those of the best, he can feel that his selection was a merited one. The board and the community can also feel that they have secured the best person for the development of their educational program.

Determining Educational Policy

The board of education determines the policies that guide the operation and improvement of the schools. In doing this it shapes the future of the students as the community wishes, but not solely as the community wishes. Public schools are created by the state, and school boards are agents of the state as well as of the local community. As indicated in Chapter 3, the state prescribes much that local boards can do. State laws usually prescribe the ages during which children must attend school, the number of days a year during which school must remain open, the

⁵ *School Boards in Action*, pp. 77-79. Used by permission.

See also American Association of School Administrators, *Choosing the Superintendent of Schools*.

qualifications of teachers, some courses or subjects to be taught in school, and a number of other items varying in nature from state to state. No school board can change these, in spite of the fact that local schools might profit from a change.

But the laws of the state can be changed to meet the needs of communities. Here is an important area of policy making frequently neglected by school boards. It is important for each board to devote some time each year to a consideration of the laws of the state which affect public education in order to discover ways of improving them. This is essential if the American system of public education is to serve individuals. State school legislation should emerge from the thinking of those concerned with the education of individual boys and girls in situations where individual boys and girls can really be known. When proposals for state action are derived from such a source, the system is then regulated to serve the best interests of individual people. Unless they are so derived, we are in danger of having the special interest of a person or group imposed upon the schools of the state.

It is important that local boards give consideration to desirable goals for state legislation at the times when they are re-planning their programs or when they are drawing conclusions from local surveys and evaluations. This will provide, in terms of what is educationally sound, a basis for their support of, or opposition to, bills introduced when the legislature is in session. If local school boards consider state school laws only while the legislature is in session, the basis of their decision may be opportunistic or political rather than educationally sound. The state association of school boards can be helpful to local boards in getting wider consideration of problems that call for new laws or revision of old laws. The advice of the professional staff of the school and of the attorney for the board should also be sought.

In general, however, the laws of each state allow enough leeway for a school board to make schools better or worse, depending on the policies it adopts. School boards are not like individuals in respect to the laws of the state. The citizen can do anything not forbidden by law. The school board can do only what the law gives it authority to do. It has only those powers which have been granted to it, or which can reasonably be implied from specific grants. It cannot do whatever is not forbidden. It cannot, for example, operate a nursery school or a junior college unless it has been granted the power to do so. Its policies must be within the framework of

its authority. Further discussion (through paragraph 1 on page 99) is adapted from a speech delivered by one of the authors.⁶

It is generally recognized that the board of education should establish policy and that the superintendent should execute it, but there is not much agreement about what constitutes policy. Some boards appear to believe that policy is as minute as deciding the color of pants to be worn by a high school football team. Other boards believe that policy consists of accepting whatever the superintendent believes to be good. A few boards believe that wise policy is whatever the last important person in the community has urged them to do. In general, boards of education are doing a lot of fuzzy thinking and more peculiar acting as they attempt to carry out the duties and powers vested in them by the state.

The relationships between the school board and its executive officer are as important to the success of the schools as any within the system. The executive officer's professional training, his breadth of insight into the needs of children and of the community, his understanding of the problems of the staff, his perception of democratic principles, and his ability as a leader combine to make him a potent force for improvement in education. Because he has, or should have, these attributes, he is a source for many recommendations of policy to be considered by the board. In addition, he will develop free channels of communication within his staff so that recommendations of policy may come to the board from members of the staff. His opinions on all matters of policy, wherever they originate, should be sought and given great weight, but they should never be given final weight. Board policy should come from mature consideration of all information, including the recommendations made by the superintendent. Neither he nor they should feel that occasional failure to do as he recommends means that there is a loss of face on his part or loss of faith in his leadership by the board. He should be as diligent in executing policy with which he disagrees as he is in cases of agreement.

Execution of policy is not easily separated from making policy in some areas, but in education there is a sound basis for the division of the two. Determining what the school should accomplish, what kind of competencies should be found among the graduates—in short, deciding upon the aims and purposes of education—is not and should not be the responsi-

⁶ Willard B. Spalding, "The School Board as a Policy-Making Body," *Improving Public Education through School Board Action* (University of Pittsburgh Press, 1950).

bility of educators alone. It is the responsibility of the total society. Educators, like other citizens, should play a part in the selection of purposes; because of their training they may be able to play an effective part, but they should play only a part. The schools in this country are close to the people, and it is the people that should determine what their schools' aims should be.

Deciding how to reach these aims and how to fulfill purposes is a difficult technical job, which cannot be done by untrained persons. This is the task of the professional educator, and it should never become the task of the board of education. Questions about the use of phonics in reading, the amount of time given to physical education or to any other subject, whether or not there should be a core curriculum, and many similar ones, are not appropriate for a board to consider. They are technical or professional and can be answered best by persons who have studied education and know how to go about getting answers. In education, the execution of policy involves technical competence and can be clearly separated from the establishing of policy.

Stating that boards of education should not attempt to decide how the ends of education should be reached does not mean that they should not spend much time in becoming informed about what goes on in the schools. One would not expect the board of directors of a manufacturing company to understand the processes as well as do the engineers, nor would one expect them to develop new and better processes, but one would expect them to visit the plant often enough to be familiar with its operations in general. Most boards of education neglect their policy-forming functions in respect to the ends of education and spend almost no time in getting acquainted with the operation of the schools. In many instances they are looked upon with suspicion if they enter school buildings. Administrators tend to feel that teachers might tell the members things they should not know, while teachers are so afraid they are being inspected that they talk very little and do that timidly. This is unfortunate. While a member of a board should never be expected to make a decision about the use of phonics in the schools, he should know whether or not they are used, and if used, at what grade level. One of the best ways to find out about this item and other items of operation is to visit the schools.

It is granted that the initial visit may be accompanied by the suspicion of some administrators, the distrust of some teachers, and consequent discomfort for the visiting board member. But suspicion and distrust can be

allayed by further action. A good way to encourage good relations is for the member to bring two or three persons to the school from time to time in order to show how good it is. Teachers know that someone is proud of them when this happens; they do not feel that they are being inspected. It also sharpens the wits of board members as they try to tell another layman what is going on. Both teachers and pupils value their work greatly. Observing the results of the work and commenting upon its quality will help both to do better. After all, teachers are people, and everyone likes to be appreciated.

Another good way of acquainting the board with the educational program, and one used in many places, is that of devoting at least one-half of the time spent in board meetings to a consideration of purely educational problems. Too many boards spend too much time on business and too little on the main job—education. It does no good to have the best kind of coal to heat a classroom in which there is the worst kind of education. Purchasing economically is desirable, but it is unimportant compared with the development of a sense of direction for the educational program. Being in a dilapidated school building is not good for children, but it does them far less harm than an educational system which does not develop a sense of and a devotion to the great moral principles without which democracy cannot exist.

Members of the staff can be invited to discuss education with the board during meetings. Hearing a first-grade teacher tell of her work gives a man new faith in the importance of a school board. Learning about the program for music appreciation, watch repairing, or foreign language will broaden a board member's appreciation of the teaching profession. Every staff has members with excellent training, a touch of genius, and a love for children. They should be encouraged to share their understanding with the board. And there are values for the teachers. All too frequently actions of the board seem to be curtained by mystery. Teachers may be doubtful about what has been done and therefore anxious about the future. Inviting them to take part in meetings will help them understand that school boards are made up of people and not of individuals with horns, tails, and cloven feet.

It is not usual to think of a board of education as an agency concerned with ethics or morals; but this is its main function, even though it often neglects it. The concepts which the people in this country have of what is good, what is true, what is just, what is beautiful, and what is right come

in large measure from their schooling. Education always indoctrinates, by its very nature. The indoctrination in most schools is unplanned and determined by chance. Yet the central forces that hold this nation together are found in the beliefs of our people. Unless these beliefs remain relatively the same, there will certainly be conflict among groups and there may be dissolution of the nation. So it is that the school board has a moral responsibility in deciding what the ends of education in its schools shall be. It is the one agency which can make sure that the basic concepts in our society—the freedoms in the bill of rights, for example—are understood and accepted by everyone. The greatest responsibility which boards have is that of making sure that the ends of education in the schools they govern, as expressed by the policies they enact, are consistent with the American Ideal.⁷

The Interaction of School and Community

If the school board is to realize these high purposes it must keep close to the people it serves. This means that there should be wide publicity about the dates, times, and places of the meetings of the board. An agenda of items to be discussed should be published in advance of the meeting, so that any citizen may know when there is an item being acted upon which may be of interest to him. Citizens should be encouraged to attend all meetings of the board. The device of going into executive session in order to prevent the people from hearing members of the board discuss questions is a highly undemocratic one. Every citizen has the right to know, not only what each member of the board thinks about an educational problem, but also how he arrives at his decisions. Executive sessions should be used for one purpose only, that of protecting members of the school staff from being criticized in public. Whenever it becomes necessary for the board to discuss individual members of the personnel of the school, it should do this in executive session. At all other times the board should meet in public.

The administrative staff is at the focal point of the many forces in the community which impinge upon the school. Most of these forces will be felt by the board as well as by the professional staff, but it is the staff that

⁷ The section adapted from "The School Board as a Policy-Making Body," which opened on page 96, ends here.

has the time, energy, and responsibility to guide them into constructive action. This is one of the great tasks which confront staff members daily. They must be continually on the alert to use these forces in order to improve the schools.

In order that each school-community relationship may be most helpful to the schools and to the community, it must be kept within an appropriate framework—the search for the greatest good for the children during all of their daily living. It is important that this be kept ever in mind. What is best for the child in school is not really best for the child if it detracts seriously from some of the activities outside of school, if it affects his parents or his neighborhood adversely, or if it keeps him away from good agencies which might help him. The essential principle which can be used to resolve conflict and to extend the area of common thinking is that of doing what is best for the whole child in the total situation. It is this principle to which the school staff must hold above all others. And staff members must hold to this so firmly that they will willingly change the program of the school wherever such a change can allow the child to live better because of the total influence of the community upon him.

Holding to this principle is important, but it is not enough in itself. Unless leaders of formal and informal community groups, heads of municipal agencies, leaders in community opinion, and other responsible persons who try to influence the school, come to hold to it as strongly as do the educators, then not much will be accomplished. The educational leader does his best work in leading the community to take this point of view. Wherever people have come to understand that they can really make a difference in the living of children by working together, the living of children has improved. The love most people have for the young can be a powerful integrating force if it is used wisely through astute leadership.

The board of education is, in the final analysis, the agency through which the ideas and ideals, the purposes and dreams, of the community can be brought into being. And few boards of education are successful in doing this. There are many reasons for their failure. First, few boards follow the practice of publishing an agenda of meetings in advance so that the public may be fully informed about what is to be under discussion. Second, few boards have a clearly defined and widely understood channel by which a citizen or an organization may get a proposal before the board for consideration. Third, most boards abuse the privilege of executive session or committee-of-the-whole. They tend to conduct their business

in such a way that all but the final voting is done behind closed doors. The public rarely gets an opportunity to know why members vote as they do. Fourth, few boards spend enough time directly on the goals and development of the educational program. Fifth, few boards and few superintendents have established usable channels through which the ideas of the staff can flow to the board. Sixth, many boards are not truly representative of the whole people of a community.

As a result of the failures of boards to do what they ought to do, a different organization is arising in many communities. This is often known as the advisory council to the board of education. It is made up of citizens who have an interest in education and want to improve the schools. Usually these councils are creations of the board, being set up by it to bring the thinking of the community to bear upon the problems of the school. Such a council is an effective device for this purpose in some places for a period of time. It does not work well over a long period of time because it has no clearly defined function. It has no power or authority. It is not responsible to any body of people. It tends to try to gain power, which frequently brings it into conflict with the board that created it. There is little place for a continuing general advisory council of laymen in a community where the board is fully alert to its responsibilities as a public body and lives up to them in a desirable way.

This should not be interpreted as a criticism of an advisory committee to a particular program of the school, such as vocational agriculture, English, or watch repairing, or to an individual school in a large system. Here laymen with real competence in a specified area possess knowledge and training which should be brought to bear on the improvement of a special program of education. These advisory committees work in a well-defined area, have specific purposes, and require the kind of power that comes from possessing unusual competence. The general lay advisory committee, on the other hand, is intended to be a cross section of the community. Its membership is not chosen on the basis of competence but rather on the basis of representing a point of view or a class of people. It does not have the inherent strength which will enable it to survive without support and stimulation by the board and by the professional staff.

The wise school staff will recognize that they must lead the board of education which employs them to understand its relationship to the whole community and to become a means of extending and improving the quality of the community's interest in the public school. As the staff gets

board members to see this, they will understand more thoroughly the needs of children and of adults, and will realize their responsibility to meet these needs through the schools and to lead the community to improve the quality of its living. When this happens, the problems of school-community relationships tend to be solved through the application of principle rather than through the use of merely expedient solutions.

This again has moral implications. The board that is able to lead a whole community to think in terms of principles when making decisions about education, is establishing habits of thought and action that may well carry over into other areas. When people begin to think about what is right or just, or true, or good, or beautiful in public education, some among them will begin to use these ideals to guide their action in other areas. And what has been found to lead to better education will be found to lead to better community life in all of its aspects.

Suggested Reading

Effie G. Bathurst, *Where Children Live Affects Curriculum*, U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1950, No. 7. This very useful government publication reveals ways in which the content of learning is affected by the social and physical locale in which learning takes place. The author begins by taking a pupil through a typical day. The pamphlet defines specific institutional and other factors that cause curriculums to vary.

Metropolitan Study Council, *What Makes Good Schools? The Community Factors*. An eighteen-page pamphlet. Such community factors as "good will," "understanding of what schools can do," and "resistances" are analyzed by means of questionnaires. The results are given as scores, with community averages indicated. About fifty school systems in the metropolitan area are included in the study.

T. M. Pierce, *Controllable Community Characteristics Related to the Quality of Education*. This study attempts to explain why there is a fifty-year lag between proposals and implementation in educational practices. More than sixty communities were studied and scored on twenty-four distinct factors.

A. A. Warburton, "Children and Youth in Rural-industrial Areas," *School Life* (January, 1948). This report of the October 1947 meeting of the Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth discusses at some length the problems of Harlan County, Kentucky, as illustrative of those in similar areas.

The Effects of State, County, and Federal Government on Education at the Local Level

CHAPTER

Public schools are set up by the various states in order to induct the young into adult life. As a branch of government they suffer from many of the defects found in other branches of state and local government. A description of the government of the United States would fill many volumes. The federal government includes elected and appointed officials, Congress, bureaus, agencies, courts, penal institutions, armed forces, banks, collection agencies, investigating officers, and countless other individuals and organizations, each with specific duties and responsibilities. The state governments include elected and appointed officers, legislative bodies, bureaus and agencies, inspectors and investigators, courts and penal institutions, hospitals, road builders, and innumerable other units with defined functions. The county governments have elected and appointed officials, courts, penal institutions, police, investigators, clerks, and almost the whole gamut of government found in larger units. The largest cities have all the paraphernalia of government found in counties and states, with additional improvisations of their own. There are smaller cities, towns, villages, incorporated townships, hamlets, public utility districts, irrigation districts, and a host of larger and smaller units, each of which governs in some one or more areas of human activity. The design of all government in the United States is as complicated and unwieldy as if it were intended to be unworkable, and yet it works. It represents our fear of powerful, concentrated government. It is our system of constitutionalism. The machinery creaks at the gears, has

far too many parts, is cumbersome and intricate, and is needlessly expensive; but in the long run it does get those things done that are most desired by the people.

American Public Education

Public schools are organized in about as many ways as are other branches of government. There are community unit districts, township districts, city districts, county districts, elementary districts, high-school districts, non-high-school districts, junior-college districts, and perhaps a few other varieties which have not yet found their way into educational literature. Each is governed by a board of education, usually elected by the people or, in a small proportion of the cases, appointed by an elected official or board. It is estimated that there were 94,087 school districts in the United States during the school year 1947-48.¹ (Note the table on page 105.) This is a marked decrease from the 111,273 reported by the United States Office of Education for the years 1943-44.

The school districts reported by this governmental agency operated 169,905 elementary schools and 28,973 secondary schools, usually called high or junior high schools. Of these schools 96,302 were one-teacher schools, nearly all of which housed the grades below high school. The little red schoolhouse, where children progressed in spite of the pitifully inadequate conditions under which they were educated, persists in this great nation to the extent of almost half of its schoolhouses—a tragic indication of our failure to use existing wealth and income to better the lot of children. But there has been improvement, for there were 149,282 one-teacher schools in 1929-30, approximately one third more than in 1947.

The nearly 199,000 school buildings in use in 1943-44 were valued at a considerable sum of money, the estimate given in the report being \$7,928,129,584 for land, buildings, and equipment. This is a large sum of money, but it was used to house 23,266,166 students; so the plant investment per student was slightly under \$350. How does this compare with other capital investments? "Capital goods, or capital facilities, make up the bulk of the material wealth of the nation. They include factories, office buildings, homes, schools and churches, highways and bridges,

¹ R. E. Wochner, "School District Reorganization Activity in the United States," *American School Board Journal*. (September, 1948), pp. 25-26.

Number of Local Administrative Units in Each State
1947-48

Alabama	108	Nebraska	6925
Arizona	330	Nevada	254
Arkansas	1598	New Hampshire	239
California	2353	New Jersey	554
Colorado	1871	New Mexico	107
Connecticut	172	New York	4821
Delaware	1	North Carolina	172
Florida	67	North Dakota	2271
Georgia	193	Ohio	1593
Idaho	1000	Oklahoma	2850
Illinois	9715	Oregon	1400
Indiana	900	Pennsylvania	2542
Iowa	4755	Rhode Island	36
Kansas	5441	South Carolina	1680
Kentucky	246	South Dakota	3400
Louisiana	67	Tennessee	149
Maine	494	Texas	4845
Maryland	24	Utah	40
Massachusetts	351	Vermont	268
Michigan	5231	Virginia	111
Minnesota	7513	Washington	665
Mississippi	1000	West Virginia	55
Missouri	8501	Wisconsin	5200
Montana	1606	Wyoming	357

* Approximate

This table is based on information furnished by each state department of education.

machinery and machine tools, buses and railways—the whole range of durable structures, or plant and equipment, used to produce other goods and services.”² Using this definition, the expenditure for capital goods, exclusive of education, is given as follows:

² J. Frederic Dewhurst, and Associates, *America's Needs and Resources*. (The Twentieth Century Fund, 1947), p. 373.

Annual Average	1920-1924	\$ 12,062,000,000
	1925-1929	16,681,000,000
	1930-1934	7,980,000,000
	1935-1939	10,153,000,000 ³

For the twenty year period covered by these figures, the average annual expenditure for capital goods, exclusive of education, was in excess of the total value of the educational plant in 1943-44. There were 37,883,265 automobiles in use in the United States in 1947.⁴ Estimating conservatively, the value of each would average about \$350, yielding a total value of \$13,259,142,750, which is in excess of the total value of the school plant. Americans have the wealth to build factories and roads and to purchase and use automobiles, but they do not choose to give priority to putting this wealth to use in building educational facilities for their own children.

The 23,266,616 children enrolled in the schools in 1943-44 were distributed by grades as shown in the table on page 107. They were taught by 827,990 teachers, 701,318 of whom were women. The United States is the only great nation in the world with such a large proportion of women among its teachers; in most nations the educating of the young is done by teaching staffs preponderately male.

The average salary of the teachers in 1943-44—including salaries of principals and supervisors, which are markedly higher than those received by instructors in the classroom—was \$1728, less than the average paid to a high-school graduate working as a junior clerk-stenographer in a business concern. There are marked differences between the salaries paid to teachers in rural and urban areas, the average in the former being \$1018 and in the latter, \$2013. There are also marked differences between the rates of pay for white and colored teachers in those states where there are segregated schools. Seventeen southern states and the District of Columbia maintain separate schools for white and Negro pupils. Most thinking persons are shocked that in the nation's capital city, controlled as it is directly by the Congress, the vicious practice of segregating white citizens from colored ones still persists. Congress after Congress has been completely insincere about its desire to extend civil rights of some citizens to all citizens, because no Congress has proposed any change in

³ *Ibid.*, p. 375.

⁴ "Motor Vehicle Registrations in U.S.," *Automobile Facts and Figures*, 1948, p. 17.

 Enrollment in Public Day Schools, 1943-1944

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Enrollment</i>	
Kindergarten	697,468	
First	2,878,843	
Second	2,220,739	
Third	2,162,878	
Fourth	2,079,788	
Fifth	2,016,635	
Sixth	1,997,806	
Seventh	1,964,997	
Eighth	1,693,942	
Total Elementary		17,713,096
First Year High School	1,774,593	
Second Year High School	1,519,638	
Third Year High School	1,230,168	
Fourth Year High School	1,009,611	
Postgraduate	19,510	
Total Secondary		5,553,520

From *Statistical Summary of Education, 1943-44: Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1942-44*, "Table 8—Enrollment by grade in public day schools for specified years" (Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, 1947), Chapter I, p. 8.

the one area completely under its control, with no constitutional issues and no vague claims of states' rights to distract the Congress from its purposes. Note the data shown in the table on page 108.

Overcrowded classrooms taught by underpaid teachers and operated for a shortened school year, with lax enforcement of attendance laws, seem to be the lot of the Negro rather generally in the areas where he is deprived of the right to attend schools with whites. These facts make a mockery of the claim that schools for Negroes are equal but separate. Even in the District of Columbia there are over 20 per cent more students in the average Negro class than in the average white one. In view of the

Comparative Data for White and Negro Schools in 17 States and the District of Columbia, 1943-44

State	Average length of term in days in schools for—		Average number of pupil attended by each pupil enrolled in schools for—		Number of pupils en- rolled per member of instructional staff ¹ in schools for—		Average annual salary of principals, super- visors, and teachers in schools for—	
	WHITES	NEGROES	WHITES	NEGROES	WHITES	NEGROES	WHITES	NEGROES
	173.5	164.0	145.0	133.4	28	34
TOTAL.....								
Alabama.....	169.6	166.1	138.4	137.9	30	38	1,158	661
Arkansas.....	175.3	141.8	132.7	111.8	31	38	924	555
Delaware.....	181.5	181.7	158.4	152.0	25	27	1,953	1,814
Florida.....	172.4	168.2	152.7	145.3	26	30	1,530	970
Georgia.....	175.3	165.0	143.9	127.2	27	34	1,123	515
Kentucky.....	159.2	171.6	125.4	138.0	29	26	(2)	(2)
Louisiana.....	180.0	156.7	149.8	131.5	26	37	1,683	828
Maryland.....	186.7	186.5	164.4	156.8	31	34	2,085	2,002
Mississippi.....	165.5	130.0	135.8	104.6	30	42	1,107	342
Missouri.....	182.4	193.9	154.0	152.5	26	31	1,397	1,590 (3)
North Carolina.....	179.9	179.9	161.4	152.7	31	35	1,380	1,249
Oklahoma.....	169.0	175.8	140.3	150.4	27	25	1,428	1,438
South Carolina.....	176.9	160.4	145.9	124.2	27	34	1,203	615
Tennessee.....	166.7	169.0	134.6	139.7	29	34	1,071	1,010
Texas.....	173.9	166.2	141.9	128.6	27	30	1,395	946
Virginia.....	180.0	180.0	155.3	151.1	28	33	1,364	1,129
West Virginia.....	172.1	173.7	151.3	157.1	27	26	(2)	(2)
District of Columbia.....	175.0	177.0	146.2	151.1	26	31	2,610	2,610

¹ Teachers, supervisors, principals, and other instructional staff.

² Separate salary data not available.

³ Higher salaries due to the fact that most Negro schools are

located in cities where all salaries are higher.

From *Statistical Summary of Education, 1943-44*, Chapter 1, p. 29.

fact that the education of the child is dependent upon what one teacher can do for him at any given time, giving Negro teachers inadequate time to work with their pupils is gross injustice.

In the rural areas of the United States the typical school has an average of 2.4 members of the instructional staff in each building, as contrasted with an average of 14.2 in urban communities. The typical situation outside of the towns and cities is a one-room wooden school with a privy behind it, a stove for heat, and little modern equipment. The governing body is a school board of from three to seven members, who have the responsibilities of employing the teacher and of raising taxes to pay her salary and to equip and operate the school building. Such a teacher may be a married woman who lives in the area, or an inexperienced recent graduate who could not get a better job, or an individual with little training and questionable personality traits who has become resigned to being rejected by better schools. There is nothing for such a teacher to do but watch the corn and beans grow, travel to a nearby village to see an ancient moving picture, and get out every weekend. She is inspected by every parent who wants to do so and is expected to live according to the mores of the people whose children attend school, no matter how different these are from the ones to which she has been accustomed. Thus she is subject to criticism if her dress or habits deviate from what is expected of a teacher. In most such schools the teacher is expected to follow an impossible standard of behavior; she must conform to standards that no other adult follows but that most of them believe to be right because of the narrowness of their own experiences. The impact of the most rigid sectarian interpretations of good behavior upon the life of teachers is much more severe than upon other adults, even in fairly sophisticated areas. In rural situations it becomes almost intolerable.

What then is American education? The only answer that can be given is that there is no such thing. There is education in New York City, education in Santa Barbara, California, education in Sauk City, Wisconsin, education in Greenup, Illinois, education in Greenfield, Massachusetts, and in almost a hundred thousand other school systems. There is the drab and depressing, pitiful one-room school; there are the exciting modern buildings of the Pacific Coast. And there are vast numbers of schools that fall between these two extremes. No system of organization of the grades is common enough to enough school systems to be called the American system, nor is there any organization of the government of school districts

or of the staff of the schools which is near enough to being universal to bear the label "American." Discrepancies in rates of pay, in the social conditions in which teachers live, in the opportunities for rural and urban children and for black and white children are tremendous, yet even these follow different patterns in different regions. There is no such thing as American education, unless it is defined as that heterogeneous conglomerate of ideas, systems of organization, defects, and achievements found within the boundaries of the United States. Such a definition is geographical, not educational, yet it seems at times that no other can be made.

The Legal Structure of Public Education

But there is a legal structure that underlies American education and, from state to state, has far more similarities than differences. Public education is a function of the states, implicitly reserved to them at the time of the adoption of the Federal Constitution. Their right to control it has been affirmed by many decisions of the courts. But education is carried on in local school districts. Each is usually governed by a board that employs professional personnel and establishes the policies that govern the operation of the schools. In many respects these boards appear to be creatures of the school district they serve. Many citizens within these districts are under the impression that the boards are purely local in character. This is not true. Each local board of education is created by the state through its legislature and may, within the limits of the constitution of the particular state, be given more duties at any time, or have its duties reduced, modified, or changed in any way that the legislature deems wise. It may even be abolished.

The rights and duties of each local board are limited. Unlike an individual, who is free to do whatever the law does not forbid, a school board has only (1) those powers specifically granted to it, (2) those powers which can be reasonably implied from these specific grants, and (3) those powers essential to carrying out its statutory purposes. It cannot do whatever seems good for education in its local district unless it can find the power to do so in one of the above three categories. Since both (2) and (3) deal with implied powers, they will be discussed together.

Powers Usually Granted Specifically to Local School Boards

The powers usually granted to school boards in nearly every state are not numerous. They can be divided under four major headings,

Personnel. Each school board has the power to decide whom it will employ among those individuals whom the state has licensed to practice in the field of education. It can employ custodians to keep the school buildings clean and warm. It can employ principals of schools, superintendents, and other professional persons. It can employ school nurses and school physicians. It can establish rates of pay for its employees, determine the hours they will work, establish rules and regulations governing their conduct while at work, discipline them for infractions of these rules, and dismiss them. In many instances the procedure the board must follow in exercising its powers is prescribed in the law which makes the grant.

Students. The school board has the power to admit children too young to be compelled to attend school to the lowest grade which it is permitted to operate. It can discipline students under reasonable rules and regulations. It may exclude from school children who are mentally incapable of profiting from instruction.

Curriculum. The school board may determine the curriculum of the schools, other than those subjects prescribed or forbidden by the state.

Business. The board may purchase materials, contract for supplies and services, provide transportation, acquire the sites for schools, and build buildings, usually in accord with procedures precisely stated in the statutes.

Implied Powers of Boards of Education

Personnel. The delegation of power by the board to the officers it employs is implied from the right to employ them. Establishing salary schedules which provide a higher rate of pay for those employees with the most education is an implied right. So are the establishing of in-service training programs, paying teachers for attending summer schools, providing for sick leave, and other acts usually related to the employment of people.

Students. The board has the implied right to determine the boundaries of districts to be served by individual schools and to compel children to attend a prescribed school. It may determine the nature and extent of

extracurricular activities and set up rules to govern who shall take part in them. It has those general powers that a reasonable person would believe necessary to operate an educational program for children and to control pupils while they are being educated or are on the way to or from school.

Curriculum. The board may specify the time for the beginning and ending of school and for the beginning and ending of recess periods. It may specify the amount of time to be devoted each week or each day to particular subjects. It may select the texts to be used in each class. These are among the implied powers which a wise board will delegate to its professional staff.

Business. The board may employ persons to keep accounts, carry on business for it, repair buildings, or do whatever a reasonable person would think necessary in order to keep the schools in operation and to account for the prudent expenditure of public funds.

Powers Usually Reserved to the State

The powers usually reserved to the state are more numerous and cannot be classified as simply as those held by school boards. An important group of such powers is that centering around the ability of the state to tax and to distribute its taxes to local agencies. Forty out of the forty-eight states provide for a common school fund in their constitutions, and all do in their statutes. This common school fund is raised by many different taxes and is distributed to the local school districts in many different ways. There are, however, some general principles underlying its distribution which are practically universal. There is a tendency to provide a greater share of the funds to efficiently organized districts than to poorly organized ones. By the way in which money is distributed, there is a tendency to encourage consolidation of districts. There is a tendency to equalize the financial ability of school districts, and to use the power of the state to collect funds to supplement the ability of all local districts.

A second general area in which the state reserves large powers is in determining who shall be licensed to carry on the profession of education. In some states only teachers are licensed; in others, special certificates are required of administrators and other specialists.

A third area in which most states reserve power to themselves is that of prescribing general conditions affecting the work of teachers. The right to work is protected by tenure laws, all of which include provisions for

the dismissal of those who should not remain as teachers. The right to financial security in old age is protected by retirement programs, and a minimum salary is guaranteed rather generally.

The fourth group of powers usually reserved to the state is related to students. The state determines the ages during which school attendance shall be compulsory, the conditions under which exceptions to the law may be made, and the kinds of schools which may be attended. The conduct of the students while going to and from school and while in school is, to a considerable extent, subject to control by the state. The state usually acts to protect students from accidents and disease by establishing laws and regulations about buses, the construction of buildings, vaccination or immunization, and quarantine.

A fifth area of concern by the state is that of prescribing a portion of the subject matter to be taught in school. This prescription may extend as far as the number of hours per day or per week that a given subject must be taught. While the state has the power to make such laws, it is very unwise when it does so. It would be far wiser to state what kind of people it wants the school to produce and then to set up procedures for finding out whether or not this is being accomplished. Instead of prescribing a year's course in the history of the United States, the state might better prescribe that all students who graduate from high school should be familiar with the great principles which underlie our way of life, know how these principles came into our thinking, and be made aware of how they have been preserved and defended in courts, in legislative halls, and on battlefields. Then it would be up to the local schools to determine how to accomplish this. By such a procedure the state would be playing an appropriate role—that of deciding on ends—while the local school would be held to the task it can best perform—that of developing the means by which the ends can best be reached for the individual pupils of each district.

Finally, the state determines the nature and size of school districts. As was mentioned earlier, these are of many different types and sizes.

There are other miscellaneous powers which are exercised in some states and which could probably be exercised in all or nearly all states. These include:

Prescribing the kinds of work children of school age may do.

Requiring oaths of allegiance of teachers or other school employees.

Providing free textbooks.

Requiring that specified texts be used.

Supervising budget and accounting procedures.

Determining the nature of the contracts which may be entered into by school boards.

Specifying the conditions under which the school district may be sued successfully.

The State Board of Education

It is generally recognized that the organization of the state system of education should be headed by a lay board. This has worked well at the local level and in those states where it is now in use. Without such a board there is no consistent attention to long-range development, to continuous evaluation, to reasonable coördination, to representative policy making, to employment of professionally qualified executives. Thirty-nine states now have state school boards, but not all of these are made up of laymen, and even fewer are chosen in the best manner. Three of the boards are made up exclusively of ex officio members, whose terms of office are the same as that of the office to which they have been elected or appointed, while twenty-one others have some ex officio members. The practice of having persons hold membership on a state school board by virtue of their office is not good. It tends to limit the length of service of the member to a short term, although long terms guarantee more continuity of principle and program. It makes practically certain that the member of the board will look upon education as subordinate to the functions of the main offices they hold. It tends to encourage the intrusion of partisan political issues into the operation of the schools for most ex officio members are politicians. State board of education membership is, or can be, an honorable occupation.

In three states the board of education is elected by the people. This is an excellent procedure if the election is separate from the election of state and national officials, and is non-partisan. It is unwise to have any geographical, occupational, political, or educational qualifications for the membership of a state board of education. Those elected to serve should represent the total citizenry.

Two states provide for the election of the state board by a convention of school board members. One provides for its election by the state legislature. In both these instances the persons who make the choice have been

elected by the people. This method of choice is in accord with the republican form of government under which we live.

In twelve states the board is appointed by the governor. This has worked well when governors have had a sincere interest in education and have appointed excellent members. It has not worked well where there has been a different tradition. And there is some evidence that a long, excellent tradition can be destroyed quickly by an unscrupulous governor. On the whole this is not a good procedure for selecting a state board of education.

In the remainder of the states having state boards of education the selection is by a combination of ex officio members, appointment by the governor, and election by the people.

In summary, three state boards are wholly ex officio, and twenty-one boards are partly ex officio. Three are elected by the people, two are elected by a school board convention, and one is elected by the state legislature. Thirty state boards are appointed in whole or in part by the governor. The range in size of the board is from three to nineteen members. Twenty boards have from seven to ten members.

The Chief State School Officer

Every state has a chief school officer to lead in the improvement of the schools. In theory such an official could observe the development of education within the state and measure this against what is known to be best. He could be an educational statesman who would speak for and work for what his trained professional vision sees as the needs of public education. In practice, the methods by which he is chosen, in most states, tend to discourage statesmen from holding the office.

Students of the subject generally agree that a state school officer should be chosen by a state board of education from among all qualified candidates without respect to residence. He should be the one person who, in the judgment of those who employ him, can give the highest quality of leadership. His term should be long, or be at the pleasure of the board, so that the policies he recommends and which he is executing will endure long enough to be effective.

But the actual situation in the several states is contrary to what is known to be good. (Note the table on pages 116 and 117.) In thirty states the chief school officer is elected by the people. This means that his term is

The chief State school officer: Salary, term of office, method of selection, and relationship to the State board of education, January 1949

STATE	Salary (1948)	Term of office (years)	Method of selection			Relationship of chief State school officer to State board of education			
			Popular election	Appointed by—		Member	President or chairman	Secretary	Executive officer
				Governor	State board of education				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Alabama.....	5,700	4	X			X		X	X
Arizona.....	5,000	2	X			X		X	X
Arkansas.....	5,000	2			X			X	X
California.....	12,000	4	X			X		X	X
Colorado.....	4,000	2	X			X	X		
Connecticut.....	10,000	(1)			X			X	X
Delaware.....	10,000	1			X			X	X
Florida.....	9,000	4	X					X	X
Georgia.....	7,500	4	X					X	X
Idaho.....	4,000	4	X			X		X	X
Illinois ²	9,000	4	X						
Indiana.....	7,200	2	X			X	X		X
Iowa ²	6,000	4	X						
Kansas.....	5,000	2	X						
Kentucky.....	5,000	4	X			X	X		X
Louisiana.....	7,500	4	X					3X	X
Maine ²	7,000	3		X					
Maryland.....	15,000	4			X			3X	X
Massachusetts.....	11,000	5			X				X
Michigan.....	7,500	2	X					X	X
Minnesota.....	8,000	6				X		X	X
Mississippi.....	7,500	4	X			X	X		X
Missouri.....	7,500	(1)			X				X

short, that he is often the candidate of a political party, and that he must be a resident of the state. In seven states he is appointed by the governor for a term which coincides with that of the governor. This means that his term is short and that he is subject to the influences of politics if he wishes to remain in office. In eleven states he is chosen by a state school board. Since the accompanying table was prepared, Colorado has shifted to appointment by state board of education.

Duties and Functions of the State Departments of Education

The chief state school officer should be the administrative head of the state department of education and the executive officer of the state board. He should recommend policy to the board and be responsible for putting into effect the policy which they adopt. This relationship exists in thirty-four states. Where it does not exist, there is no ready means by which professional study and consideration can be brought to bear on policy planning for the state. In twenty-five states the chief state school officer is the secretary of the board.

In every state there are professional employees who are subordinate to the chief state school officer and who make up the staff of the state department of education. They are responsible for carrying on its activities. And these activities are numerous. Beach⁵ classifies the present functions as leadership, regulatory, and operational. He lists five leadership functions: planning, research, advising and consulting, coordination and public relations. He states:

There are at least five chief purposes which State regulatory requirements are designed to serve: *To protect the lives and health of its children and youth, to guarantee safety and economy in the use of educational funds; to assure efficiency in the management of the educational enterprise, to provide a framework for the instructional program which would assure a basic minimum in both scope and quality; and to assure an educated citizenry.*⁶

As illustrative of the operational functions of such departments, Beach lists the responsibility for running teachers colleges, state trade schools, and schools for the blind and deaf and otherwise handicapped; citizenship classes for the foreign-born, state libraries, state museums, film

⁵ Fred F. Beach, *The Functions of State Departments of Education*, Miscellaneous Bulletin No. 12, Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, 1950.

⁶ *Ibid.* p. 10.

censorship and licensing units, audio-visual aids libraries; teacher-placement services, teacher retirement systems, rehabilitation programs for persons over the age of sixteen.

In the organization of state departments of education in the 48 states there are 348 different division names. Of these, 129 have only one professional staff member assigned.⁷ The table on pages 120 and 121 shows the total number of professional staff members of the 48 state education departments according to general classifications. From the table it may be seen that over half of the professional employees of state departments of education are in some field of vocational education. This should not be interpreted to mean that there are too many persons employed in this area. There has been no adequate investigation of the real relationship between the need for leadership at the state level and the amount of staff required. The only sound inference which can be made from this data is that the influx of federal funds into one part of the program of public education has enabled state departments to add staff in that area. This may result, in some instances, in overemphasis upon vocational education. The remedy for this is not the reduction of funds and staff below what is needed to do superior work in vocational education. It is, rather, that of finding funds for the staff that is needed to do superior work in other areas.

Before this can be done, there is need for a careful study of the role of the state department in encouraging the improvement of education at the local level. And it is here that there may be real conflict with vocational education. Except in the area of vocational education there is great faith in the wisdom of the people in the local school district and belief in development at the grass roots. Vocational education not only has relied upon centralized control through state and federal officials, but has also established separate advisory committees in many communities. As shown above, these committees may tend to usurp the function of the board of education. The philosophy which underlies these practices is not in harmony with that which underlies the other 95 per cent of public education. One or the other, or both, must be modified if there is to be an efficient operation in the state department of education.

But in all areas of education, including the vocational, the functions of state departments have the same general form wherever the department has become recognized as excellent. These functions are described on page 122.

⁷ Beach and Gibbs, *The Structure of State Departments of Education*.

Full-time professional staff members of the central education agency, including staffs for vocational education and vocational rehabilitation whether administered by the central education agency or another agency

STATE	TOTAL STAFF	PROFESSIONAL STAFFS FOR—						Vocational education and vocational rehabilitation	
		Vocational education		Vocational rehabilitation		Other educa- tional services			
		Num- ber	Percent of total	Num- ber	Percent of total	Num- ber	Percent of total		
Alabama	73	7	9.6	21	28.8	45	61.6	28	38.4
Arizona	22	7	31.8	7	31.8	8	34.6	14	63.6
Arkansas	76	32	42.1	21	27.6	23	30.3	53	69.7
California	335	50	14.9	122	36.4	163	48.7	172	51.3
Colorado	43	21	48.8	11	25.6	11	25.6	32	74.4
Connecticut	108	16	14.8	34	31.5	58	53.7	50	46.3
Delaware	50	6	12.0	10	20.0	34	68.0	16	32.0
Florida	74	11	14.9	32	43.2	31	41.9	43	58.1
Georgia	156	37	23.7	62	39.9	57	36.5	99	63.5
Idaho	17	4	23.5	4	23.5	9	53.0	8	47.1
Illinois ²	145	29	20.0	73	50.3	43	29.7	102	70.3
Indiana	61	27	44.3	21	34.4	13	21.3	48	78.7
Iowa	69	10	14.5	18	26.1	41	59.4	28	40.6
Kansas ³	44	15	34.1	13	29.5	16	36.4	28	63.6
Kentucky	72	26	36.1	19	26.4	27	37.5	45	62.5
Louisiana	117	57	48.7	31	26.5	29	24.8	88	75.2
Maine	36	8	22.2	6	16.7	22	61.1	14	38.9
Maryland	66	8	12.1	23	34.9	35	53.0	31	47.0
Massachusetts	138	49	35.5	22	15.9	67	48.6	71	51.4
Michigan	137	30	21.9	78	56.9	29	21.2	108	78.8
Minnesota	84	33	39.3	19	22.6	32	38.1	52	61.9
Mississippi	57	13	22.8	22	38.6	22	38.6	35	61.4
Missouri	73	7	9.6	38	52.0	28	38.4	45	61.6

Montana	28	5	17.8	8	28.6	15	53.6	13	46.4
Nebraska ³	39	12	30.8	10	25.6	17	43.6	22	56.4
Nevada	18	3	16.7	2	11.1	13	72.2	5	27.8
New Hampshire	56	21	37.5	5	8.9	30	53.6	26	46.4
New Jersey ²	100	15	15.0	35	35.6	50	50.0	50	50.0
New Mexico	21	5	28.8	3	14.3	13	61.9	8	33.1
New York	506	77	15.2	64	12.7	365	72.1	141	27.9
North Carolina	135	62	45.9	30	22.2	43	31.9	92	68.1
North Dakota ³	26	12	46.1	6	23.1	8	30.8	18	69.2
Ohio	106	16	15.1	23	21.7	67	63.2	39	36.8
Oklahoma ³	170	39	23.0	40	23.5	91	53.5	79	46.5
Oregon	50	12	24.0	14	28.0	24	48.0	26	52.0
Pennsylvania ²	154	12	7.8	75	48.7	67	43.5	87	56.5
Rhode Island	29	7	24.1	10	34.5	12	41.4	17	58.6
South Carolina	75	12	16.0	27	36.0	36	48.0	39	52.0
South Dakota ²	12	4	33.3	4	33.3	4	33.4	8	66.7
Tennessee	104	21	20.2	32	30.8	51	49.0	53	51.0
Texas	159	69	43.4	46	28.9	44	27.7	115	72.3
Utah	39	11	28.2	16	41.0	12	30.8	27	69.2
Vermont	31	9	29.0	6	19.4	16	51.6	15	48.4
Virginia	152	76	50.0	21	13.8	55	36.2	97	63.8
Washington	62	10	16.1	20	32.3	32	51.6	30	48.4
West Virginia	70	6	8.6	31	44.3	33	47.1	37	52.9
Wisconsin	94	15	16.0	34	36.2	45	47.8	49	52.1
Wyoming	23	7	30.4	7	30.4	9	39.2	14	60.9
Total	4,312	1,041	24.1	1,276	29.6	1,995	46.3	2,317	53.7

¹ As published in "Directory of State Professional, Personnel Divisions of Vocational Rehabilitation and State Agencies for the Blind," Nov. 1, 1948 (Federal Security Agency) pp. 1-24. These figures include central and field staffs.

² Vocational rehabilitation administered outside of State de-

partment of education.

³ Vocational education and vocational rehabilitation administered outside of the state department of education.

From Beach and Gibbs, *The Structure of State Departments of Education*, p. 13.

First, the relationship between the state office and the local school district is essentially of an advisory nature. Courses of study are suggested rather than required. Services are rendered after the local school system has requested them. Publications are planned with the close coöperation of those concerned with problems at the local level. Local initiative is encouraged at every turn.

Second, it is recognized that local initiative, to be effective, must operate in the direction of betterment. There is no local right to provide poor or deteriorating education. As education is a function of the state, the state department of education encourages local initiative but also guarantees a minimum quality of education. This means that there must be a system of inspection and accreditation of schools which are to receive financial support from the state. In order that reports may be received in a uniform manner, it is necessary to have uniform records. The state department prescribes the forms to be used for financial, material, and pupil accounting. It inspects and regulates the vehicles used to transport students to and from school. It certifies persons for employment in the schools.

Third, the state office of education compiles data from the reports received, conducts investigations, and carries on research so that its recommendations of policy to the state board may be based upon careful study of the facts. Its studies are also made available to local educational leaders so that they may use them to improve their schools.

Many other functions of the state office are found in a few of the forty-eight states. Each has developed a pattern of organization which has arisen, in part, out of its needs. Many state departments study the distribution of state funds and report ways of improvement. This is a desirable function for all departments. Some interpret school law, another worthwhile service which all should provide. In general, there is need for careful study of the ways in which state departments of education can best serve the schools of the state so that local initiative is encouraged and public education improved. Such a study does go on in those few states where the state department of education is headed by an educational statesman, and some among these statesmen have been elected by the people. Educational leadership at the state level can do much to help the youngest child in the poorest classroom. And there have been great leaders in this office: Payson Smith of Massachusetts, Francis Spaulding of New York, Alonzo Grace of Connecticut, and V. L. Nickell of Illinois

are among the men and women whose work has provided influence throughout American education because of educational leadership while serving as a chief state school officer.

Educational Organization at the County Level

The county is an old unit of government. It evolved in England from a local community with a sheriff and an ealdorman to a larger area headed by an earl to whom the sheriff was responsible. Such an organized area was recognized by the crown as the appropriate unit from which to receive petitions. In time it had its own courts and responsibility for highways, forests, and game. Eventually it had most of the paraphernalia of government. The county was established in the United States as a copy of the English model. Both here and in England it arose because of the need of people for an agency of general government that was close at hand and that could be influenced by local opinion. But the improvement of roads and communication has changed this need. It is questionable whether the continued existence of county government is desirable. It may well be that this anachronism costs far more in taxes than it can possibly return in service.

The county superintendent of schools is, to some extent, the result of the existence of this anachronism. If there had been no counties in 1829, when the first county superintendent was appointed in Delaware, there would have been no county superintendent. The problem of administrative overseeing of public education in large areas would have had a different, and probably a better, solution. Most counties today are neither natural clusters of population, areas set off by topographical boundaries, nor reasonable administrative units. They exist because prior to settlement and development someone drew lines on a map and decided that a county should take up a particular area, or because, as population came into an area, people marked off boundaries to fit an ancient idea of government. The overlapping of governmental function existing in almost every well populated county is found in education. If the local school districts are properly organized and large enough to justify the employment of a professionally trained superintendent of schools, there is no real need for a county superintendent. As educational reorganization creates adequate local districts, the office of county superintendent may begin to be eliminated, or greatly modified. It tends to continue largely because the office

is a political one, in many states, and political offices are not usually eliminated in this country.

County superintendents are appointed by county boards where they are not elected by the people. The office is found rather generally throughout the United States, except in New England, New York, Louisiana, Delaware, and Nevada. The county system has been modified to some extent in Virginia and Utah. In states where there is no county superintendent the administrative problem of the larger unit has been solved by other devices. Although there is little need for the county superintendent of schools where schools are organized properly, he is needed in many states today. School districts are far too numerous and far too small to justify elimination of the office. In about half of the states the county superintendent is elected by the people, usually on a partisan ticket. His salary is low. He is not especially well educated, the median education of county superintendents in 1947 being slightly less than four years beyond high school. Yet his duties are numerous and call for skill in carrying them out.

First, historically, among his duties, is the keeping of records. He examines the certificates of teachers to make sure that each is properly licensed and records each certificate. Local districts report attendance and financial records to him. He records the results of school elections and of tax levies.

Second, he is an enforcement officer. He inspects schools to ascertain the degree to which they are following the laws of the state. In some states the findings of the county superintendent are not subject to review by the chief state school officer. In other states he is a liaison officer between the state department of education and the local school district.

Third, he serves as an educational leader. Some county superintendents of schools have had broad vision of the needs of the people and have brought professional training to bear on them. Local district administrators look to them for good ideas. They are a source of inspiration to teachers. It is when they have performed as leaders, rather than as recorders or enforcers of the law, that they have made significant contributions to the improvement of education.

In general, the successful county superintendent of schools endeavors to encourage local initiative. He seeks to serve as a liaison officer between the local district and the state department of education. He endeavors to broaden the vision of local leadership and at the same time helps the state to understand better the problems of the local community. He can

and does serve a very useful function in those states that have not yet established local school districts of sufficient size to provide local leadership of high quality.

The United States Office of Education

The United States of America is one of the few nations which do not have an officer of cabinet rank representing education. Typically, a minister of education gives leadership to education on the national level. In this country, however, education started in the local community, and it was late in our history when a federal office was authorized. The federal Department of Education was established in 1867 to collect information about and to promote the cause of education. The department became a Bureau of Education in 1870, and the United States Office of Education in 1929. At present it is a part of the Federal Security Agency.

Few people are completely satisfied with the present location and status of the office. One group wishes education to be represented in the cabinet. They point to the relative universality of this practice among nations. International relations in education are becoming increasingly important, and the status of "minister" is important when representatives of this country meet representatives of other countries. Education, according to those urging cabinet rank, is as important as labor, commerce, the post office, or public parks. It should speak with the same authority in making national policy, in advising the President, or in making proposals to the Congress.

Those who oppose this position point out that cabinet officers are members of political parties and are changed whenever a new party comes into power. Wherever education has flourished, it has been separated from partisan politics. Historically, a close tie has proved harmful. If education is tied with political parties at the national level, it is claimed that it would become tied with them at the local level. Teaching positions, supervisory positions, and administrative posts might become part of the spoils of the victorious machine.

A second position is taken by those who wish to streamline government and to have only a relatively few agencies reporting directly to the President. This group would place education in an appropriate department of the government, usually suggesting a department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Each subdivision would be headed by an under-secretary.

This proposal is criticized as placing education in a subordinate position, as placing it under political influence, and as making it compete with health and welfare for prestige. It is a middle position between representation in the cabinet and the third proposal, that of an independent office. Like most in-between steps, it satisfies few persons.

The independent office is advocated by the majority of professional educators who have studied the problem. Such an office is apart from all departments headed by political appointees, a typical location for education at any level. It reports directly to the President, which is desirable; and it can speak with independent authority in presenting proposals to the Congress.

At present the Office of Education is a subordinate part of an independent agency, the Federal Security Agency. It has neither the values which might come from cabinet rank, the values which might come from being an independent office, nor that freedom from the possibilities of political manipulation which is considered to be desirable. There seems to be little justification, other than expediency, for retaining it in its present place in the organization of the federal government.

Present Services and Organization of the U.S. Office of Education

An administrative survey report offers the following general statement concerning the Office of Education:

For a modestly financed agency with a relatively small staff, the Office of Education has an exceedingly broad range of interests and activities. It attempts research on many phases of education; offers advice on matters ranging from the organization of universities to the teaching of health in the primary grades; publishes treatises on such diverse topics as world understanding, state finance programs, and school custodial services; administers a program of grants-in-aid; evaluates credentials of students from foreign countries; sponsors a great variety of conferences; promotes the educational uses of radio; and engages in numerous other activities for the promotion of education.

In spite of the wide range of its services and the complexity of matters with which it deals, the Office suffers from a heavy sense of destiny unrealized. In the 83 years of its existence, it has seldom found the resources at its command equal to its mission as conceived by its staff or by its educational clientele. Even worse, it has been torn at times by doubts as to its major purposes and functions and the means suitable for their performance. In short, the Office has not yet found itself—has not yet developed a clear

sense of direction and laid firm hold of the means of moving toward its objectives.

The persistent inability of the Office to mobilize the resources necessary to the accomplishment of clearly defined purposes is not unrelated to a major dilemma which has shaped its development. From its inception it has been torn by conflict between an overwhelming sense of the importance of education to the nation and the fear of impinging upon traditions of state and local control of education.⁸

The report emphasizes the need for a centralizing purpose for the Office of Education as distinguished from the unending expansion of diverse functions and responsibilities. It urges that such purpose be that of assisting American education in dealing with its principal problems. It gives the following summarization of current opinion regarding the responsibilities of the Office:

The program of the Office, in the opinion of its present leadership, must be fully cognizant of the primacy of state and local responsibility for public education; but it must, also, find effective means for the promotion of the national interest in education in accordance with the basic charter of the Office and the requirements of specific statutory assignments and administrative delegations of responsibility. Current Office statements refer specifically to the following responsibilities:

1. National normative research in the broad field of education, covering such matters as: enrollments, staffing, facilities, financing, and the like.
2. National studies and research focused on the evaluation of educational methods and results.
3. The dissemination of the findings and recommendations of such studies and research to professional education groups and the lay public throughout the Nation.
4. The administration of grants-in-aid for the education in the States.
5. The administration of programs of international education exchange and studies of foreign school systems.

To these five are added the broad function of "the promotion of the cause of education throughout the country." Statements of the present Commissioner recognize the obligation of the Office to provide information, counsel, and advice to (a) state legislatures and educational agencies, (b) the Congress and the executive agencies of the federal government, (c) international organizations and bodies such as UNESCO, and to foreign ministries of education, and (d) national professional organizations, the heads of

⁸ Public Administration Service, *A Report on an Administrative Survey of the U.S. Office of Education of the Federal Security Agency* (Public Administration Service, 1950), p. 3. Used by permission of the Office of Education.

educational institutions, and other groups of citizens engaged in or concerned for education.⁹

In order to carry out these functions the Office of Education was reorganized early in 1951 and three divisions were set up: a Division of State and Local School Systems, a Division of Higher Education, and a Division of Vocational Education. Under the newly established organization an assistant commissioner is attached to the Office of the Commissioner to work on coördination of defense-related activities and to maintain the National Scientific Register. Two branches also serve the Office of the Commissioner directly: a Program Development and Coördination Branch with sections on research and statistical standards and on information and publications; and an Administrative Management Branch with sections on budget and administration and on personnel and organization.

The Division of State and Local School Systems has four branches: School Administration and Supervision, Curriculum and Instruction, International Education and Teacher Exchange and Trainees, and School Assistance in Federally Affected Areas.

The Division of Higher Education has three branches: Administration and Grants, Curriculum and Instruction, and Credential Evaluation.

The Division of Vocational Education has six branches: State Plans and Grants, Business Education, Agricultural Education, Trade and Industrial Education, Home Economics Education, and Guidance and Counseling.

It should be noted that under the reorganization each Division has a branch concerned with distribution of some federal funds. In the Division of State and Local School Systems responsibility for fund distribution has little relation to or effect upon the work of other branches. In the Division of Higher Education the basis for concern with grants is broad and non-directive. In the Division of Vocational Education the work of the entire Division is closely tied into a financial aid plan.

The Divisions of State and Local School Systems and of Higher Education prepare reports, give advice to states, institutions, and school systems as it is requested by them, hold conferences, and give leadership to education. Neither division has power over the operations or programs of local public education. Each works in a consultative, coöperative, and advisory capacity.

The Division of Vocational Education has legal authority over the

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 9. Used by permission.

Smith-Hughes, George-Deen, and George-Barden Acts, which enables it to exert significant control and powerful influence upon the development of education at the state and local levels. The intent of these laws is to provide half of the cost of vocational education out of federal funds. Actually, the Congress does not usually appropriate sufficient money for full reimbursement. Each local district which operates a reimbursable program in vocational education receives a substantial portion of the cost from the federal government. These funds are distributed through the respective state departments of education. Under the existing procedure each state prepares a state plan for vocational education which is submitted to the Division for approval. This plan is measured against published standards and is approved for a period of years. When approved, the plan determines what local programs of vocational education will be financed in part out of federal funds. The influence of such state plans can best be understood by reference to one of them.

The plan for the State of Illinois for the years 1947-1952 is generally regarded as one of the better plans in the nation. It contains the following statements:

All programs of vocational education for which reimbursement is requested, shall be subject to the approval of the Director of Vocational Education through recommendation of the State Supervisor.¹⁰

Classrooms, laboratories, and shop facilities suitable for vocational education programs shall be provided by local communities and approved by the appropriate state supervisor.¹¹

In addition to general provisions, of which the above are typical, there are special provisions for each area of vocational education. A selection from those relating to trade and industrial education follows. These are similar to the provisions in most of the other kinds of vocational education.

The State Board of Vocational Education will be responsible for approving each year the character and efficiency of the work done by local supervisors for whose salaries and necessary travel Federal funds are used.¹²

¹⁰ Illinois State Board of Vocational Education, *Illinois State Plan for Vocational Education, 1947-1952*, p. 15. (From a mimeographed copy of the contract between the State Board and the U.S. Office of Education.)

¹¹ *Ibid.* p. 22.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 90.

All-day Trade and Industrial classes.**Plan A.**

- (1) Character and content of course of study.
The course of study shall provide experience for students in all basic processes of the trades taught and shall include outlines for the teaching of technical information related to the trades.
- (2) Amount of time given to:
 - (a) Practical work on a useful and productive basis.
A minimum of three consecutive clock hours a day.
 - (b) Related instruction.
At least 25 per cent of the school day shall be given to related instruction.
- (3) Length of school year and hours per week.
Nine months or thirty-six weeks at a minimum of 15 hours per week for shop work and at least 25 per cent of the school day for related instruction.
- (4) Qualifications of teachers.
 - (a) Shop teachers. See page 111.
 - (b) Related technical teachers. See page 111.

Plan B.

- (1) Character and content of course of study.
The course of study shall provide experience for students in all basic processes of the trade taught and shall include outlines for the teaching of technical information relating to the trade.
- (2) Amount of time given to:
 - (a) Practical work on a useful and practical basis.
A minimum of three consecutive clock hours a day including the necessary related instruction.
- (3) Length of school year and hours per week
Nine months or thirty-six weeks at a minimum of 15 hours per week.
- (4) Qualifications of shop teachers. See page 111.¹³

The necessity for federal approval of a state plan has led to the inclusions within state plans of the requirement that local schools secure the approval of some state officer. This is undesirable. It is perfectly appropriate for the body providing funds to establish standards that must be met by agencies receiving the funds. It is generally accepted, however, that such standards should be broadly conceived, should be capable of

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 100. Author's note: The material beginning on page 111 of the Plan consists of three pages of detailed requirements.

but one meaning, and should not be subject to interpretation by an officer with power. Abuse through federal control comes when standards are equivocal and so leave an institution or a school system dependent upon the personal approval of a federal official. The history of programs in whole or in part subject to the approval of an officer remote from the operation is one of slow stultification rather than of dynamic adaptation to new conditions.

It is obvious that minute prescriptions of time allotments for vocational education have profound effects upon the remainder of the educational program in the small school. And most of the high schools in the United States are small. If half of the day must be spent by a substantial portion of the students in a particular program, then the schedule of the rest of the classes must be built around this requirement—usually with an extremely bad effect. This is an example of the other evil usually found in state and federal standards for vocational education: They are far too specific. Instead of seeking for clear language by which a broad principle or standard can be stated, attempts are made to secure clarity through the multiplication of minutiae. The result has an unfortunate effect upon education.

The activities of the Division of Vocational Education, then, unlike those of the other divisions of the Office of Education, involve approval of programs of education in the several states, authorizing the distribution of funds to these states, establishing standards for the states, and approving standards established by the states. In carrying out these activities there is a tendency to multiply specifics, to govern and control through men rather than through law and regulation, and to impinge undesirably upon the total educational program.

Relations between Local School Districts and the Federal Office of Education

Apart from answering requests for statistical information or for information about educational programs, the local school system has no direct relation with the United States Office of Education unless it seeks it. Every two years the Office collects statistical information from the various school systems of the nation. This is its sole continuing, universal contact.

The reports and publications of the Office are distributed through the Superintendent of Public Documents, usually at a very small charge.

Some are distributed without cost to important educational agencies and institutions. These publications deal with a wide range of educational problems. In his efforts to improve the schools in his charge, each local school administrator will find some publication with pertinent information available to him upon application. He will also find that many of the programs sponsored or encouraged by the Office will be of value. If, for example, he is interested in improving the offerings of the secondary school in his district, he can secure much valuable assistance and information from the materials put out or collected by the Office under its program of Life Adjustment Education. If he is interested in education for citizenship, he can secure pamphlets and bulletins such as "How Democratic is Your School?", "With Liberty and Justice for All," "Education for Freedom," and "What is Democracy?". Other examples of usable material are bibliographies on atomic energy (for both teachers and students), "Playground Equipment That Helps Children Grow," "Let's Help the Ten Million" (for teachers of illiterates), and the Annual Report of the Office of Education.

Each local school staff should keep informed about the conferences sponsored by the Office. These deal with important current problems in education, and the material presented at them is frequently of great value to the local district.

In addition to conferences, publications, programs, and reports, the Office can provide occasional advice through correspondence and, very rarely, through visitation. It provides an informational service, loans audio-visual aids and provides information about other sources of this material, assists with the exchange of teachers, provides some service to libraries, and does occasional field surveys.

Other Federal Agencies and Programs Affecting Local School Districts

It is extremely difficult to compile a list of all the funds that the federal government supplies to school districts or that are used to finance educational programs carried on by the government itself. No single publication lists them. There is no central plan for coordinating and interrelating them. The funds come from different departments and are not reported by any common source. Only some of the sources of funds and some of the programs operated by the federal government are mentioned in this section.

Each school district that serves food to children is entitled to receive aid. Funds for this purpose are supplied through the Department of Agriculture. If the school district is to receive this aid, it must serve a lunch that meets standards set up by this Department. Some of the aid is in cash. Some of it is in surplus products that can be used in preparing lunches. The intent of the act is to help develop a healthier population through providing at least one nutritious meal each day.

School districts located in areas close to military bases or to large industrial plants constructed during the war receive additional aid. This aid is provided because the impact of defense or war activities produced a large school population in relation to the taxable wealth available to educate it. Funds for this purpose are distributed to the local school districts on a deficit-financing basis. The district makes all possible local effort, and the federal government supplies the additional money needed to operate a good educational program.

Most people think of the so-called G.I. Bill of Rights and of the law providing educational benefits to disabled veterans as applying only to colleges and universities. A substantial number of veterans, however, attended public schools under the provisions of these laws. Many veterans have been enrolled in apprentice courses or other programs of trade and industrial education. If the veteran is not a resident of the community in which he is being educated and is not otherwise entitled to free tuition from the schools or the state, the school district can receive tuition funds from the federal government.

The federal government also operates educational programs of its own. The most distinctive of these are the universities or colleges operated by the Army at West Point, by the Navy at Annapolis, and by the Air Force at Montgomery, Alabama. At these schools officers are trained to take their place in the various branches of the service. In addition to these educational programs, many bases have schools for training technicians of various kinds. An example of this is the training program at Chanute Field. At this air base substantial numbers of technicians are graduated every Tuesday to take their appropriate places in the Air Force.

The government also operates schools for Indians. These schools are maintained at government expense and are open to the Indians who live on reservations. In addition to this, Indians who live on reservations may occasionally attend public schools in adjacent districts in order to receive training not available at their local school. The local school

district can then receive tuition payments from the Bureau of Indian Affairs.

The federal government makes some contribution to maintaining Gallaudet School for the Deaf, in Washington, D.C. This school is operated at the college level, but the government has never provided sufficient funds for it to employ appropriate staff or to secure appropriate facilities so that it can become an accredited institution of higher education.

The government also provides funds for colleges and universities through the G.I. Bill of Rights, through the Morrill Act, granting funds to land-grant colleges, and through direct subvention of a few colleges for Negroes.

The Issues of Federal Support of Public Education

The federal government has been providing some support for some kinds of education for many years, and substantial support for vocational education since 1917. The proposal that money from the national treasury be distributed to local school districts for general use, rather than for special purposes, has been presented to the Congress on many occasions but has failed of passage. Each time the matter has become complicated by the presence of four critical issues which have not yet been resolved to the satisfaction of a majority of the Congress.

First Issue: Shall There Be Federal Control or Local Control? Every bill that has been introduced by the organized profession of education has contained a provision that there should be no federal control of education at the local level. In spite of this provision, the spectre of a bureaucrat from Washington invading the local school system and telling people what they can or cannot do has apparently frightened some members of the Congress sufficiently to lead them to vote against the proposal. As a matter of fact, each such bill has had a minimum of federal control through the requirement that each state to receive money must use it for public education, or must appropriate an additional sum from its own funds, or must not use federal funds to reduce its own expenditures. Controls of this type are not subject to change through the interpretation of an official. They are precise, unequivocal, and necessary if federal funds are to improve education.

The opposition to control appears to assume that the nation has no interest in the education of its children, or that, having such an interest, it would be wrong to express it through compulsive legislation. Either point of view is arrant nonsense. If education of the young is to be at a satisfactory level in every school district, additional funds from the national treasury are necessary. These funds should be available under conditions which encourage local initiative. They should be free from the influence of bureaucrats or politicians. But they should not be distributed without some concern for improvement. A wise federal law for distributing money will insist that districts which receive it employ properly qualified teachers, provide adequate equipment and supplies, and have reasonably staffed schools, to mention some of the essential elements of good education which can be stated clearly in a statute.

Local initiative can flourish when the conditions for improvement are guaranteed. It will not flourish simply because more money is poured into a district without requiring it to improve the quality of its staff, or the material it provides, or the load of its teachers. Expecting the education of children to be made better by paying large salaries to poorly trained and overloaded teachers is naïve.

Second Issue: Shall There Be Federal Support for Sectarian Schools?

Every proposal for federal aid which the organized profession of education has presented to the Congress has called for aid to public schools alone. This restriction has led to vigorous protest and strong opposition from those religious sects that operate parochial schools. Most outspoken and most effective in opposition has been the Roman Catholic Church. The point of view of this religious sect has been stated by Rev. William McManus, Assistant Director, Education Department, National Catholic Welfare Conference, in a pamphlet entitled, *The Question of State Aid for Parochial Schools*, an address he delivered at the Catholic Press Association's national convention in Cleveland, May 21, 1948. In this document are found the following statements:

Let us begin with facts. Are Catholic Schools in this country entitled to a share of public funds? The answer to this question is clearly set forth in Pope Pius XI's Encyclical on *Christian Education of Youth*:

"And let no one say that in any nation where there are different religious beliefs, it is impossible to provide for public instruction otherwise than by neutral or mixed schools. In such a case it becomes the duty of the State, in-

deed it is the easier and more reasonable method of procedure, to leave free scope to the initiative of the Church and family, while giving such assistance as justice demands.

"That this can be done to the full satisfaction of families, and to the advantage of education and of public peace and tranquility, is clear from the actual experience of some countries compromising different religious denominations. There the school legislation respects the rights of the family, and Catholics are free to follow their own system of teaching in schools that are entirely Catholic. Nor is distributive justice lost sight of, as is evidenced by the financial aid granted by the State to the Several Schools demanded by the families."

In another statement in the same Encyclical, the Holy Father called attention to the fact that in the United States Catholics openly profess as their motto: Catholic education in Catholic schools for all Catholic youth and then said, "If such education is not aided from public funds, as distributive justice requires, certainly it may not be opposed by any civil authority ready to recognize the rights of the family, and the irreducible claims of legitimate liberty."

Immediately after this statement the Holy Father asked Catholics to promote the enactment of laws that respect the norms of distributive justice. His instruction reads, "Where this fundamental liberty is thwarted or interfered with, Catholics will never feel, whatever may have been the sacrifices already made, that they have done enough, for the support and defense of their schools and for the securing of laws that will do them justice."

In summary, therefore, we know from the Holy Father's Encyclical that distributive justice obliges government to support parochial schools.¹⁴

Distributive justice imposes an obligation upon government to disburse its *tax-revenues to all* persons and institutions that render a public service requested by the government. Hence, to the extent that parochial schools do render a public service, they are entitled to a share of public funds.

That Catholic schools actually do render a public service is a fact beyond dispute, for, like the public schools, they too prepare their students for the responsibilities of American citizenship. By approving Catholic schools as institutions to which parents may send their children in compliance with compulsory education laws, and granting them tax exemption the State has acknowledged the parochial schools' contribution to the general educational welfare of the State.¹⁵

Obviously this whole controversy has much more significant facets than a mere quarrel over the amount of public money which might be given to parochial schools. This dispute brings into sharp focus two fundamental issues on which the proponents and opponents of public aid for private schools are divided.

These two issues are: the relationship of government to education, and the relationship of church and state.

¹⁴ Rev. William McManus, *The Question of State Aid for Parochial Schools*, p. 6.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

Thus, the proponents of public aid maintain that service to the public, and not public control should be the criterion of a school's eligibility to receive public funds. The opponents insist that our government has a right to control every school it assists, and moreover that it discharges its educational responsibilities by providing public school opportunities for all children.

On the church and state issue, the proponents argue that the First Amendment simply forbids the establishment of an official church (an historical fact recently scuttled by the United States Supreme Court) or at most it forbids aid to religion as such, and not aid to religious education or education under church auspices; opponents of public subsidies for parochial schools insist that no public funds may be given to any institution that is not completely and unquestionably secular.¹⁶

The importance of the first issue, the relationship of government to education, cannot be stressed too much. This issue is a live one in almost every nation of the world.

As an educator recently returned from Europe remarked: "in almost every nation of the world there is a struggle between democracy and totalitarianism. A major battleground is the school, particularly the private school. Where democracy prevails, private schools are encouraged, and in some nations, they are supported by public funds. In the totalitarian nations, private schools are either suppressed or seriously restricted in their academic activities. I would judge that a nation's most powerful safeguard against totalitarianism is the maintenance of variety, diversity and independence of schooling. The private school, embodying the national tradition, but not subject to political control, is a mighty bulwark against those forces which would destroy both free schools and free nations."¹⁷

The whole church-state issue is centered mainly around the correct interpretation of the First Amendment. Those who claim, as does our United States Supreme Court, that the First Amendment prohibits any form of direct or indirect aid to religious organizations on a non-discriminatory basis are preparing a way for the establishment of a lay state similar to the one in France after the Revolution. They base their claim on the fallacy that it is impossible for government to be neutral towards all religious groups as long as these groups are among themselves unequal in number and in prestige.

Carried to its logical conclusion, this interpretation of the First Amendment would permit government, step by step, to take away from religious organizations the benefits which they now have. If this interpretation of the First Amendment is correct, there can be no sound basis for granting tax exemption to religious organizations.

A further consequence of this interpretation of the First Amendment is

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 15.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 16.

its virtual endorsement of secularism as a constitutional requirement of any institution eligible to receive public assistance from the government. This, in turn, would lead to the strengthening of secularism as a dominant force in American Life, for it is already evident that proponents of this interpretation of the First Amendment are interpreting the American way of life in essentially secular terms. . . .

Those on the other hand who regard the First Amendment in its true, historical meaning, interpret it as a prohibition against the establishment of any one church as the official church in the United States. They hold to the opinion that government may cooperate with religious organizations on a non-discriminatory basis. In supporting this interpretation, they give expression to their belief that our American institutions are founded upon a Christian interpretation of life.¹⁸

While the above material is from Catholic sources, other sects have opposed federal aid directed solely to public schools. According to the New York Times of October 10, 1948, legislation fostering federal control of education and tending to handicap privately supported schools was denounced by the sixteenth biennial convention of the United Lutheran Church in America. Other sects have from time to time taken similar stands. In nearly every instance the supporting arguments are similar to those quoted above.

Those who advocate that federal financial aid go only to public schools base their case on legal, educational, and philosophical grounds. They agree with the Supreme Court (in its ruling on the McCollum case) when it said, "The First Amendment has erected a wall between church and state. That wall must be kept high and impregnable. We could not approve the slightest breach." And its further statement:

To hold that a state cannot consistently with the First and Fourteenth Amendments utilize the public-school system to aid any or all religious faiths or sects in the dissemination of their doctrine and ideals does not . . . manifest a government hostility to religion or to religious teaching. A manifestation of such hostility would be at war with our national tradition as embodied in the First Amendment's guaranty of the free exercise of religion, for the First Amendment rests upon the premise that both religion and government can best work to achieve their lofty aims if each is left free from the other within its respective sphere.

From the educational point of view, proponents of federal aid for public schools point out that one of the major purposes of public educa-

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 16.

tion is that of bringing people together, of creating harmony and wholeness within the population. Sectarian schools, by the very act of separating children according to religious beliefs, tend to counteract one of the main efforts of the public schools. If democracy is to remain strong, the divisive forces within it must be reduced rather than strengthened. Supporting sectarian schools with public funds would be using the wealth of the state to weaken the state unless a state church were also to be established. In such case the church schools would then also be the state schools.

Those who argue in favor of confining state aid to public schools from a philosophical basis point out that democracy and religion are, to some extent, antithetical. Freedom of inquiry, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and freedom of worship are fundamental to democracy. The existence of these freedoms—and their guarantee by the state—implies that all ideas, all proposals, all statements, shall be subject to scrutiny and question by any citizen. Out of the crucible of argument and counterargument will come the gold of truth. Out of the interrelationships of fragments of truth man will approach the whole truth. But those who are devotees of particular religious sects believe that they can depend upon the universality of application of truth revealed and interpreted as their leaders speak with God, or as they themselves communicate with God through prayer, or as truth is understood from the King James Version of the Bible, or revealed in some other system or combination of systems. If one believes he has had the truth revealed to him by the Divine Being, then he feels no need for further inquiry as to its nature. Unquestioning faith in revealed truth *versus* freedom to search for truth, faith in the word printed in The Book *versus* freedom to print any idea, faith in what an ordained leader says *versus* freedom to say anything that is not scandalous, faith in a particular doctrine *versus* freedom to follow any doctrine or none—these are among the antithetical elements between such faith and freedom.

Whenever a single religious sect has been in control of the government, freedom has tended to disappear. In seeking to eliminate freedom, these controlling sects have been quite logical. If one grants the assumption that God has revealed the truth to them as they interpret it, then it follows that there is no need for further inquiry, discussion, talking, or worship in diverse ways. To the philosopher, it is difficult to understand why the democratic state should be expected to finance to any extent an organiza-

tion which must, by its very nature, seek either to destroy the basic freedoms upon which our theory of government rests or, at best, to produce separation which avoids considering the interrelationship of differing information and beliefs.

Third Issue: Is Service to the Child the Same as Service to the School?

Some persons propose that aid may be given to the child who attends school, without aiding the school. They contend that providing service to all children without regard to the type of school attended is a public welfare benefit to the child and does not constitute financial aid to the school, nor to a religious organization if the school is operated by one.

There is precedent for this point of view in the action of some states and in the action of the federal government. In 1947 fifteen states had statutes explicitly authorizing the transportation of non-public-school pupils at public expense. These states make some provision for all pupils to receive textbooks. The federal school-lunch act provides funds for improving dietary programs and lunchroom equipment in all schools, however they are controlled. It has been rather generally recognized for years that health inspections, inoculation and vaccination, medical and dental clinics, and public health nursing service should be available to all pupils. On February 10, 1947, the United States Supreme Court, in the case of *Everson vs. Board of Education of Township of Ewing*, held that the State Legislature of New Jersey was within its jurisdiction in extending the right to be transported to school to all pupils, whatever school they attended.

Those who oppose extending aid to the child, on the ground that this is a real, and only slightly indirect, way of assisting the religious organization which supports the school, base their arguments solely upon logical grounds. They do not understand how a school can be said to exist without students. If the assumption that the school always includes students is granted, then they argue that providing books aids the school, providing lunch equipment aids the school, and bringing students to the building aids the school. The ideas of this group do not presently have substantial influence. A body of action and opinion has grown up which seems to support the idea of giving public-welfare aid to pupils. It is probable that there will be considerable extension of this idea. Whether it will eventually result in a change of attitude on the part of either of the two

groups who are divided over whether or not federal aid to education should be confined to public schools, remains to be seen.

Fourth Issue: Should Federal Funds Be Dispensed through the United States Office of Education or through Other Agencies? This issue is not of such major importance as the other three, but it gives considerable concern to school administrators who find it necessary to deal with several persons and several different agencies of the government. A superintendent of schools may deal with the Department of Agriculture about school lunch funds, with the Department of National Defense about military services and the ROTC program for high schools, with the Selective Service Agency about the deferment of teachers, with the Veterans Administration about funds for G.I. education; and with other Federal agencies about other funds, because the schools are inundated by the children of government personnel or seeking surplus government property or collecting tuition for Indian students or other wards of the government. Frequently he is in a tangle of red tape from which he finds it difficult to escape. He has scarcely found out what is required on the innumerable blank forms of one department before he is deep in the task of learning what is required by another. And he is always outnumbered in a conference. Whatever number of persons he takes to a conference, the federal agency is sure to have more at hand or upon immediate call. As a result of all this, and more, there is an increasing number of educators who wish to have all federal relations with schools routed through the United States Office of Education. By this means it would be possible for one agency to interrelate and simplify the many ways in which the federal government impinges upon the schools.

Those who oppose such procedure state that government should be organized for ease and effectiveness of internal operation. It is important that the problems of agriculture be dealt with by people who have been trained in agriculture. The fact that some surplus products are given to schools is no reason for having the Office of Education attempting to deal with what is essentially an agricultural problem. And what is said about agriculture can be said about the other federal programs of aid to education.

The issue cannot readily be resolved at the level of theory. It will be resolved by consistent political pressure upon members of the Congress.

The schools of America are not isolated institutions unrelated to other governmental organizations at all levels. The influences are many and uncatalogued. But they are all operative and any realistic consideration of the schools of America cannot overlook them.

Suggested Reading

Hollis P. Allen, *The Federal Government and Education*. The author has published in full, in this book, the materials used in summary and condensation for the Hoover Commission, and for the Brookings Institution, Washington, D.C. The author's point of view is made clear from the start—that federal activities in education must be included in a careful policy of education. He uses historical data and argument effectively.

American Council on Education, *Issues in Education*. Chapter I deals with discussions presented by George F. Zook, Francis J. Brown, Edgar Fuller, and George D. Stoddard covering a proposed "Federal Board of Education." The volume also includes a review of past government activities and a summary of the comments offered on the papers.

F. F. Beach and A. H. Gibbs, *The Structure of State Departments of Education*, U.S. Office of Education, Miscellaneous Bulletin No. 10. The first of several studies to come out of a three-year project which aims to investigate the structure, services, personnel, and financing of state departments of education. A great many data are included in this study; the data are effectively organized in the presentation. See also *The Functions of State Departments of Education*.

Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America, Committee on Education, *Responsibility of the States in Education, the Fourth R*. An attractive condensation (forty-eight pages) of data concerning federal aid, organization of state departments of education, tenure, salary, and personnel. Each topic is contrasted regionally: East, South, Midwest, and West. Very readable material, appropriate for lay groups.

Alonzo G. Grace, *Leadership in American Education*. (Proceedings of the Coöperative Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, 1950. Vol. XIII.) The papers read at this conference constitute the chapters of this book. The topics include totalitarian governments and education, UNESCO, discussion of leadership (public and lay), governmental activities in education, and a panel of experts on the topic of federal-state-local responsibility.

Ward W. Keesecker, *State Boards of Education and Chief State School Officers; Their Status and Legal Powers*, U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin,

1950, No. 12. The aim of this study is, specifically, to show the legal organization of school administration at the state level. The legal restrictions and powers of state agencies and state officials are examined and explained, with a good deal of historical exposition included. Principles of educational legislation are summarized and followed by suggestions for improvement.

Gordon Canfield Lee, *The Struggle for Federal Aid: First Phase*. A doctoral dissertation by a student of the history of education, this study traces the chronology of attempts to secure federal aid for education from 1785 up to about the turn of the nineteenth century. A final chapter relates this chronology to the present controversy over federal aid.

J. C. Moffitt, "Federal Control Increases through Supreme Court Decisions," *Nations Schools* (August, 1949). An excellent study of Supreme Court decisions that, directly or indirectly, have effects upon education. The author is concerned over an increase in the number of such cases, because of the remoteness of the Court from educational situations and needs. The cases he cites range from salaries and bond issues to segregation and religion.

Robert L. Morlan, *Intergovernmental Relations in Education*. A monograph of two parts: public elementary education; higher, adult, and vocational education. The aim here is to describe how the many agencies of state and federal government interrelatedly provide educational services or assistance for such services.

Charles A. Quattlebaum, *Federal Educational Activities and Educational Issues Before Congress*. Volume I presents the educational issues before the Congress in 1951. Contains a historical review of federal educational activities, a description of the progress and current status of education in the United States, and a description of the organization and functions of the Office of Education. The second part of this volume summarizes policy criticisms and recommendations from governmental advisory commissions, expressed positions of nongovernmental advisory groups, policies advocated by active organizations and agencies, and recommendations of the President of the United States. Volume II, a survey of federal educational activities, is the best and most comprehensive compilation of them.

School Executive (July, 1947). Several expert sources are tapped to bring together this series of discussions. The contributions are specific and cover a wide range of services on all levels. Among them are curriculum, instruction, research, financing, planning for local programs.

School Executive (October, 1949). Another excellent symposium of contributions, similar to the one in 1947. The contributors discuss the three levels of responsibilities very carefully, indicating trends and making interpretations wherever possible.

J. B. Sears, "Legal Element in Public School Administration," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (January, 1950). An extended analysis of the rationale, procedures, and relationships in lawmaking that have effects

in the public school system. The author constructs a careful exposition of varying views of lawmaking and schooling.

A. D. Simpson and C. H. Woollatt, "Evolution of State-local Relations in New York State," *New York State Education* (December, 1947). The author states seven "desirable principles" which should guide the relationships between state and local governments. This statement grew out of a study to determine what factors ought to be included in considering the formulation of a state school fiscal policy.

CHAPTER 6

The Effects of Voluntary Organizations on the Development of Education

Society in the United States, as in most highly industrialized nations, has become segmented and divided. Part of the division is due to the increased amount of specialization in employment. With the improvement of industrial technology, the number of the tasks to be performed by workers increases. Instead of making something, many workers produce only part of a part of a machine. Not only are the workers in factories becoming more specialized, but so are the workers in the offices, the salesrooms, and the maintenance shops. Everywhere an observer turns, he finds that what each person does tends to become an increasingly specialized activity.

This specialization reduces the amount of communication among people, particularly when important social issues are under consideration. The ideas of each person are colored greatly by the nature of the work he does and by the persons with whom he associates while working. More and more the primary organizations which people join tend to be made up of others who do the same kind of work, or who have the same kinds of interests in maintaining economic security. The labor union, the professional association, the manufacturers' association, and the chamber of commerce are examples of organizations which draw their membership from people in a particular type of occupation.

A second reason for divisions among the people is the lack of a widely accepted system of values to which a large majority adhere and which they

use to guide their actions. The divisions that arise, in large part, out of specialization are made more definite by the failure of people to have the same ideas about what is good, true, beautiful, just, and right. The controversy and conflict over what is patriotic is typical of many other splits among the people. Some believe that freedom is important and that any attempt to abridge it is dangerous to the preservation of the nation. Others believe that freedom is important, but that it cannot include the freedom to be wrong, that people are free only to do what is right. And the people who think this way already know what is right; the only trouble is that they do not agree among themselves about truth. Each group that believes that people should be free only to believe in the truth has its own dogmas, which it wants everyone else to accept. There is conflict among them, as well as between them and those others who believe in extending freedom to those who will make mistakes.

The groups that have common values in respect to single issues, or at most a small cluster of issues, tend to organize formally, or to gain control of existing organizations. They then seek to isolate and exclude from the organization all who disagree with them, and would also exclude the dissidents from society as a whole if they could do so. Frequently they attach labels to those who hold other ideals, using innuendo and vilification instead of argument in order to make their own cause prevail.

A third cause for division among the people, which is a special case of the kind just mentioned, is religion. Each church has its articles of faith. Each expects its members to believe these to the exclusion of all others. And the articles of faith of one church contain items which are heresy in other churches. Some churches are so eager to insure that the young will follow in the right way that they separate during their schooling the children of their members from those of members of other churches. Others rely upon the teachings of the home and the Sunday School. But all seek to propagate the faith by indoctrinating the young and by converting the old. Each church believes that it has the best answer to the question of what is good.

A fourth cause for division arises when people seek to find common interests which will hold within one organization persons of diverse economic interests, religious affiliations, or value systems. It is an interesting paradox that the search for common interests may lead to division within the community. But this does happen when the common interest which is

the central point of the group becomes a criterion for separating people. Such an interest may be that of serving in a particular war. There is no way in which an organization made up of ex-soldiers can be other than a divisive force. Only those who have been in the armed services during a war may join. As the era of peace is prolonged, there are more and more people who cannot become members. So the criterion sets the membership apart from many people in the society in the beginning, and from an increasing number of them in the end. While the original organization may eventually disappear with the death of its members, as has almost happened with the G.A.R., affiliated organizations made up of wives or descendants of the original members still persist. The Revolutionary War ended in 1783, but organizations exist today whose membership is made up of persons descended from the soldiers of that time. And many persons who might accept the ideals of these organizations are refused admission because their ancestors were not in the American Colonies at the time of the Revolution, or, if they were in them, were unwilling to take part in the overthrow of the established government.

Social division caused by increased specialization, by the absence of a central core of universally accepted values, by differences in religious dogma, and by the exclusion of many persons from important cross-sectional organizations because of the criteria for selecting members, makes it increasingly difficult for an individual citizen to make his ideas felt. He does not carry the same force in approaching a public body as does an organization with many members. So he seeks for and joins associations that are trying to do things he believes right. It is through these organizations that he seeks to shape policy.

The Role of the Organization in American Life

The organization has become an effective means for influencing legislative bodies, media of communication, and public opinion. What the American Federation of Labor, the Congress of Industrial Organizations, the Chamber of Commerce, and the National Association of Manufacturers have to say about an impending bill in Congress, is listened to attentively by most representatives. In the local community, the voice of the Rotary Club, the Parent-Teacher Association, the labor union, the cham-

ber of commerce, or of the council of churches will have much more effect upon decisions than will the voice of a single average citizen. The influence of organizations is felt in the community, in the state, in the nation, and in international affairs.

But it is not as a direct, powerful influence in specific instances that the organization has its greatest effect. In the long run, its educational effect is perhaps more important than any other. Its membership reads what is published by headquarters. It attends meetings at which selected speakers present points of view that tend to be in accord with the aims of the organization. It goes to conventions where the point of view of the organization is fixed firmly by astute showmanship. It writes letters or sends telegrams to persons whom the organization wishes to influence, and so educates itself by repeating ideas that the organization wishes to have repeated. As most organizations operate, they tend to bring the thinking of the membership into accord on the few issues basic to the existence of the organization.

The membership also affects the organization. In a democracy men have learned to speak their minds in meetings of groups of which they are members. Whenever this happens there is some disagreement, some divergence of opinion. Even in an organization with a strong central core of beliefs which has persisted for a long period of time, there will be some variation in current interpretation of what the beliefs mean in action. Through the interchange of points of view among the members, the organization does change in many of its peripheral actions, and may occasionally change some of its fundamental ideas.

Few thoughtful persons are able to find any organization whose ideals, as expressed in action, are completely acceptable to them. This is only natural. Each individual is made up of what he has inherited from his ancestors, what he has learned from his schooling, and what he has learned from the culture. Each has a distinct pattern of personality. Each has his own articles of faith. It is perfectly possible for a person to be a sincere member of the chamber of commerce because he believes that most of what it seeks to do in improving the local community is good, and yet to be in favor of federal aid to education, which the organization opposes nationally. Another person can be a sincere member of a local post of the American Legion because he believes it to be a good influence among the youth of the community and because he wants to be close to the men with whom he fought, and yet be opposed to its activities in censoring textbooks in the public schools. Most persons who are affiliated with many organ-

izations find that they believe in more of the aims of one than of another, and that they believe in all of the aims of few, or perhaps none.

So the individual has the responsibility of keeping himself informed about what each of his organizations is doing to influence the development of policy at any level or to affect public opinion. If he agrees with it, then he should help it. If he disagrees, then he should make his disagreement felt in those places where the organization is trying to make its point of view prevail. He should also seek to get the organization to change its point of view to accord with his own. Failure to express his opposition to a proposal which his organization is supporting effectively commits him to a point of view unacceptable to him. Failure to attempt to change the viewpoint of an organization allows ideas and programs to persist longer than they otherwise would. Frequently a member stating his position will find unexpected support from others who think as he does but who have been reluctant to express themselves.

It is particularly important for members of the profession of education to have the courage of their own convictions and to speak for them in every organization to which they belong. By exerting their influence constantly, administrators and teachers can do much to change the direction of organizations toward better ends than they now have.

Organizations are here to stay. On the whole, their influence is good rather than bad. In a complex society, organizations provide operating intermediation between the individual and all of society. Many organizations are effective agencies for the improvement of society. Many of those that exist because of specialization, because of lack of a central core of values, or because of a cross-sectional center of interest which divides people, are worth-while and desirable for the most part. The major problem is how to use them to reduce conflict by increasing the area of common understanding.

Organizations and Education

Educators and laymen alike recognize that what the public schools do is eventually decided by the people. This is the democratic way of establishing purposes for social institutions, and few educators would have the ends of public education determined in any other fashion. At the same time, there are equally few educators who are not disturbed by some of the attempts to affect schools. As has been pointed out, modern society has

become very complex, and the channels of influence are not readily open to individual citizens. As a result, citizens with common interests band themselves together in order to further what they believe to be right and best for the nation. The attempts of various organized groups to attain power to change the way in which schools are operated and the ends which schools are to serve produce many pressures upon educational leaders and boards of education. Some of these pressures are directed against local leadership, some are directed against state leadership and legislatures, and some are directed against national leadership and the Congress. Most organizations operate at all three levels with varying degrees of success.

Most pressure groups fail to distinguish between the ends of education and the means by which these ends are reached. The first are appropriate items for public concern, while the second involve intricate professional problems, which are the primary concern of the trained educator. In many states, for example, citizens have been rightly concerned about the failure of public education to produce strong and healthy persons. Good health should be an aim of good education. Where it is not, there is every reason for the people to be disturbed and to demand action. Their action should be confined to getting the schools to recognize the need for a healthy citizenry and to do something to produce it. How the schools do this should be determined by the professionals. Usually the people try to tell school officials both what should be done and how to do it. Pressure groups interested in good health have lobbied in the halls of the state legislatures in order to get laws enacted which require that a specified number of minutes per day, or per week, be spent in health instruction and in physical education. They do not seek laws which define a healthy student, require schools to produce them, set up ways for determining that this has been done, and penalize schools which fail. They make it more difficult for the schools to succeed.

Other pressure groups have looked at the decrease in the proportion of the people who vote, the increase in the strength of ideologies which they look upon as undemocratic, students' seeming ignorance of the facts of history, and have persuaded legislatures to require one or more years of study of the constitution of the state, the Constitution of the United States, and the history of the nation. These groups have worthy purposes in mind. The methods they believe would accomplish these purposes are almost completely valueless. They forget that what a person says may have little

relation to what he does. They forget that time requirements may have little or no relation to what is learned. They forget that the development of an educational program which will produce better citizens is a complex and very difficult task. It cannot be performed by the simple measures they advocate.

Still other groups are interested in developing a nation that will shun strong drink. They have been successful in getting each state to require that the effects of alcohol be taught to all students. In some states it must be taught in every grade. In some, it must be taught as effectively as geography and spelling. Here again is a very complex social problem which cannot be understood by immature minds. Undoubtedly, public schools should train persons who can deal with the problem in better ways than have yet been developed. This cannot be done by dealing with the effects of alcohol and with nothing else. The economic problems, the employment problem, the tax problem, and many others are involved in the job of planning better ways of control. There is both good and bad in the total picture, but pressure groups wish to emphasize the bad and omit consideration of all other factors.

A fourth illustration of what legislatures will do at times to meet the demands of pressure groups is the law for teaching foreign languages in Massachusetts. That state has many persons who have come to this country recently or who are descended from recent immigrants; thus, many different languages are spoken there. The older generations do not wish their children to lose the cultural heritage of the old country. Various nationality groups petitioned the legislature to require high schools to teach Italian, Polish, Lithuanian, or other languages. Special laws were passed, but the petitions continued as new groups wanted their own languages taught. Finally, all special laws were repealed and a general statute enacted. This requires any high school to teach any foreign language when petitioned by the parents of twenty-five students who will enroll in the class.

It is quite probable that few schools could be operated if boards of education followed all of the laws of their own state. Fortunately for schools, few of these laws can be enforced; thus they may be disregarded. This situation is not good. The public schools, which are expected to develop citizens of a high order, should not be forced to disobey the laws of the state in order to operate effectively.

Kinds of Organizations Attempting to Influence the Development of Educational Policy

Organized pressure is such that the school boards and their professional staffs should be familiar with typical groups which seek to affect public education. There are five different types of organizations which attempt to influence the development of education at local, state, and national levels. Each of these will be discussed in a following section. They are: (1) professional educational organizations, (2) organizations made up of school systems or educational institutions, (3) accrediting agencies, (4) other organizations which have a primary interest in education, and (5) other organizations with a secondary interest in education.

Professional Educational Organizations

Professional educational organizations cannot be divided readily into categories, for they are numerous and widespread. "*The Educational Directory*, published annually by the United States Office of Education, lists approximately 500 national and regional associations and more than 100 state organizations. Local associations have become so numerous that no effort has been made to include them in this directory or even to count them. Nearly 2500 are affiliated with the National Education Association."¹

If all these educational organizations are grouped on a geographic basis, they may be divided as international, regional within the world, national, regional within the nation, state, regional within the state, county, regional within the county, local, and regional within the school district.

Considering them in terms of their internal structure, one kind is made up of those intended for a particular kind of professionally trained persons. Examples are the American Association of School Administrators, the American Federation of Teachers, and the National Association of Secondary School Principals. Another kind is interested in a particular broad

¹ T. D. Martin, "Teachers' Organizations," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, ed. W. S. Monroe, p. 1442. Copyright 1950 by The Macmillan Company and used with their permission.

field of education. These are typified by the Association for Education by Radio and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. A third type is interested in a subject-matter field. The National Council of Teachers of English is one of the largest of this kind. A fourth category is the general organization open to all persons in the profession. The American Education Fellowship and the National Education Association are of this kind. A fifth type is primarily concerned with the welfare of a particular group of employees. Local teachers clubs and local unions of the American Federation of Teachers are in this group.

Any one of the first four types of organizations may be organized according to geographical classifications. There might be, for example, a World Association of Teachers of Art. Next below this in scope would be the North American Art Association. Then would come the American Association for Teaching Art, followed by the Western Art Association, the Illinois Art Teachers Incorporated, the Northern Illinois Art Association, the Cook County Art Teachers Club, the Southern Cook County Art Association, the Chicago Association of Teachers of Art, and the Englewood (a district in Chicago) Art Club.

Professional organizations hold a noteworthy place in American education. They have given significant leadership to important movements. They have influenced legislation. They have improved the lot of the teacher. It would be difficult to find an important program now in effect in the schools which was not discussed thoroughly early in its history at many professional meetings. Many of the organizations have been active in raising the standards for membership in the profession. They have been a force for improvement in almost everything they have done.

One of their most important functions is spreading ideas. If teachers and administrators are to improve their understanding of educational issues, their ability to use techniques, their comprehension of principles that underly the invention of better methods, and their skill in developing the school into a social instrument, they must learn continuously. And they must have ready sources of information to help them. The professional organizations provide information and inspiration in several ways: They publish magazines that deal with the problems just mentioned; these are available to members and are, or ought to be, in the professional libraries of every school system. They hold conventions at which prominent scholars present papers on problems that are currently perplexing educators. These papers are often printed for distribution to members who

were unable to hear them. Some professional organizations provide consulting service to members who write to headquarters for information. Some have a research staff which studies problems of particular interest to the members and publishes the results of the investigations. Some organizations provide for the exchange of ideas among members, using a central office as a clearing house.

The educational leader needs to hold membership in several professional organizations. He will have interests and problems in common with those of his colleagues in other administrative positions. This calls for membership in an organization made up of administrators and devoted to their problems. He will have an interest in the improvement of broad areas of education. This will dictate membership in an organization interested in the curriculum or in child development. He may be or may have been a teacher in a subject field and therefore wish to retain his scholarly interest in it. This leads to membership in a subject-matter organization. He will wish to help the general advancement of the profession. This should lead him to join an organization with this purpose. In addition, if he is to keep alert to improvement, he should seek to join at least one organization that is doing pioneering work, that is opening up new fields for education or for educational thought. These may be in any one of the above categories. And no organization remains for long at the frontier. It occasionally becomes traditional out of necessity for consolidating its gains. The educator will need to change membership occasionally in order to keep in touch with at least one unusually forward-looking group. The educational administrator should be active within at least four geographical categories: international, national, state, and local. His memberships should include at least one organization at each of these levels. This will bring him into contact with many ideas from widely different areas, and enable him to interpret them in the light of the problems of the local community. The local organization pinpoints education so that it can be seen in its entirety at the point where it affects the child. The international organization spreads education as a great force in shaping society. The administrator should gain understanding of both perspectives.

Being a member of a professional organization involves much more than paying dues and listening to convention addresses. If each member did only those things, the organization would be ineffective and would probably disappear. Paying dues on time is important. Without financial

support even the best organization will not prosper. When compared with the cost of membership in comparable groups in other fields, dues in educational organizations are far too small. Whatever is paid out in dues is a professional expense and is therefore a deductible item in the preparation of an income-tax return. Attending conventions and listening to speeches is important. It is one of the ways of securing information about possible improvements in education. But there is much more to a convention than speechmaking. Conversations in rooms and lobbies, informal meetings, exhibits—all are valuable means of securing new ideas. If the administrator has an inquiring mind, he will always find something at a convention that will eventually help him to improve his school system. The business of an organization is carried on at its annual convention. Every member present should share in this activity. If the organization has grown to the point where a representative assembly is the policy-making group, every member has had the opportunity to choose wise persons to represent him. If it is still small, he has the opportunity to participate directly.

Whenever the professional staff member is attending a convention at which he has the right to vote, he has definite responsibilities, some of which should be discharged before he reaches the meeting place. First, he should become informed about issues that will come before the convention and about various proposals for policy that may be presented in order to resolve the issues. Many organizations send advance agenda so that those who vote may be fully aware of what will be discussed. Other organizations allow issues to emerge on the floor of the meeting. Each method has its value. In general, there should be little advance structuring of a legislative session; in other words, there should be no rigid prior decision about what may be discussed. If there is to be truly democratic interaction, any person who has the floor should have the privilege of presenting any pertinent motion. If there are special or standing committees to report, it is helpful to have copies sent out in advance so that people will have time to read and understand them. Frequently these reports are the basis for policy making.

Second, after becoming informed about the issues, the educator should determine how they will affect education. If the issues are purely professional ones, he can ask friends and acquaintances within the profession for advice. If they will have a significant impact upon the local school system, he can get advice from laymen and particularly from the school board. Each time he seeks advice he should make clear that he is asking

for one among many opinions, and that he expects to come to a decision only after weighing all suggestions for some period of time.

Third, he should seek to discover what has been written about the issues by scholars. If there has been pertinent research on any aspect of the matter, he should become familiar with what has been discovered. He should read whatever is sent to him by the organization.

Fourth, upon arrival at the convention he should present his credentials early and register as a delegate or voting member. He should read the list of members who have registered and endeavor to select several whose ideas are usually somewhat different from his own in order to get their points of view. He should talk with many persons, endeavoring to find what trend of opinion there is and how the trend fits into his own thinking.

Fifth, he must decide upon the stand he will take when the issue is debated. This decision is a tentative one. He should change it if substantial new evidence is presented in debate. He should not go into the meeting with a closed mind; he should, however, go in with a well-formed opinion.

Sixth, he should listen to the debate with great care, seeking to find additional information and evaluating it in the light of what he has discovered for himself. If information he possesses is needed by the group, he will present it. He understands that democratic coöperation must rest upon the careful consideration of all the facts. He will contribute what he can, as should every other member of the group.

Seventh, he will vote. It is not often that a legislative assembly considers an issue long enough to reach consensus. Frequently the initial proposal has compromising amendments in order to expand the area of agreement. When the final proposal is put, it may differ in some significant respects from what the individual deems best. It may also include much that he thinks is good. He will weigh the good, the not-so-good, and the bad, casting his vote for or against the measure in terms of his judgment about whether or not it would be good for education.

Eighth, after he votes he may find that he is with the majority. Some of the time he may find that he is with the minority. In either instance, the next step for the organization is that of implementing the vote by action. As a member of the organization he may be called upon to assist in this process, perhaps by serving on a committee. He then has the responsibility of making sure that what is done is fully in accord with the letter and the spirit of the proposal as voted. If he was in the minority, he will be expected to oppose the proposal the next time it is before the legislative body.

He can be expected to try to convince others that the action of the meeting was in error. He can also be expected to evaluate the results of action that is taken. This he should do with an open mind. If what is done works well, even though he was originally opposed to it, he will change his mind about its value. If it does not work well, he will seek to change it by appropriate parliamentary procedure. Under no conditions will he attempt to sabotage a proposal so that it cannot be given a fair trial under good conditions.

School Study Councils

The idea of the school study council, like many good ideas in educational administration, came from Paul Mort of Teachers' College, Columbia University. In 1941 he called together a group of superintendents of schools from communities in metropolitan New York. Mort's studies had made clear the fact that education was best where the school district spent most per pupil. Many of the communities that were willing to finance good education were within easy commuting distance of New York. Most of those were represented in the first group meeting.

At this meeting Mort reviewed his findings of the direct relation between the quality and the cost of education. He pointed out that the schools represented were at the growing edge of American education and that they provided an almost unique laboratory for the study of the ways in which the best ideas were being put into practice. Farnsworth's study² of the lag in adaptation was reviewed. It was clear to the men present that if some ways could be found to pool existing knowledge and practice, it might be possible to reduce the lag. As a result of this meeting the Metropolitan School Study Council was started. Each member school district contributed a sum of some hundreds of dollars to the common treasury. The money was used to underwrite the cost of research upon problems defined by the council.

The idea of the school study council soon spread through the leadership of Mort, and of other individuals who found the idea a good one. In general, each council was under the professional leadership of a member of the faculty of a college of education or of a teachers college. Each was made up of the school districts geographically close to the institution.

² Philo T. Farnsworth, "Adaptation Processes in Public School Systems," *Teachers College Contributions to Education*, No. 801.

Each school district contributed a sum of money to the council. The council planned activities such as research, publication, and conferences for educators, school board members, and laymen.

A further outgrowth of the council idea has been the development of a national association of school systems, under the leadership of Mort. This type of organization has promise as a device for spreading ideas more rapidly and so improving education sooner than would otherwise be possible.

Accrediting Agencies

The existence of local initiative in the development of programs of education has resulted in considerable diversity in the offerings of secondary schools. This has been good, for it has led to the development of many new ideas of value for all schools. But it has complicated the problem of admission to higher education. It has meant that there is no common, single pattern of secondary education which is conceded to be good.

For a time colleges and universities attempted to put the secondary schools in a strait jacket by specifying entrance requirements in such detail that there was no real freedom for local initiative. But educational research has demonstrated clearly that there is no pattern of subject matter which is a guarantee of success in college. It is generally recognized by those studying the selection of college entrants that the ability of the student, his having taken enough courses in any single academic area to have mastered it, and his command of the English language are the best criteria for predicting success in higher education.

But not many institutions are willing to admit students solely on the basis of these criteria. Organizations have been established by both colleges and secondary schools, usually working in coöperation, to set up standards for membership. A high school which is an accredited member of such an association will usually have little difficulty in entering its better students in any college which is also a member, or which recognizes the standards of the association. At present there are four regional associations. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was established in 1902. It accredits all members. Similar activities are carried on by The Southern Association, organized in 1912; the Northwest Association, organized in 1918; and the Middle States Association, organized in 1923.

In the meantime, the secondary schools of the nation, through their national organization, have participated in the development of a set of Evaluative Criteria³ which have been used on a coöperative basis. Each secondary school that has been evaluated has been visited by persons connected with other secondary schools, each of which has been evaluated in its turn by a visiting committee. The results of these studies are having some effect upon the standards of the associations.

According to Grizzell:

The major problems that have arisen in connection with the development of standards and accrediting procedures have been concerned chiefly with the validity of existing standards relative to the use of the Carnegie Unit, graduation requirements, length of school year (in private or parochial schools), program of studies, preparation of teachers, teaching load, library, and procedures for judging the efficiency and spirit of the school. It is freely admitted that the present traditional standards have not been scientifically tested by the associations themselves and that they are largely the outgrowth of the first standards, four in number, adopted by the North Central Association in 1902.⁴

Other Organizations with a Primary Interest in Education

Because public education has always been close to the people, parents and teachers have conferred about the problems of education from its earliest beginnings. Groups of parents have been interested in school improvement and have enlisted the interests of other citizens. It was inevitable that, sooner or later, these groups would become organized into formal associations. This happened sporadically in many parts of the nation. It is not possible to determine, with complete accuracy, in what local school district the first group of interested parents, teachers, and citizens was formed. Today, in the large cities of New York, Baltimore, and Philadelphia, there are active organizations. The United Parents Association in the first city and the Home and School Associations in the latter two cities are influential in promoting better education and better

³ Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards, Washington, D. C.: *Educational Temperatures* (1939) 24p.; *Evaluation of Secondary Schools—General Report* (1939) 526p.; *Evaluation of Secondary Schools—Supplementary Reprints* (1939); *Evaluative Criteria* (1939) 175p.; *How to Evaluate a Secondary School* (1939) 139p.

⁴ E. D. Grizzell, "Accreditation," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, ed. W. S. Monroe, p. 2. Copyright 1950 by The Macmillan Company and used with their permission.

relations between the school and the home. Other independent groups are found in smaller communities.

Most of the local groups which sprang up independently have become affiliated with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. This organization has sponsored the spread of local associations throughout the nation. The first Congress met in Washington in 1897. It was then called the Congress of Mothers. In 1908 it became the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations. It assumed its present name in 1924. More teachers belong to the Parent-Teacher Association than to any one professional organization. Its total membership, including parents, teachers, and laymen, was over 4,400,000 in April, 1947. The stated purposes of this organization, taken from the frontispiece of the manual *How To Organize Parent-Teachers Associations and Pre-school Sections of P.T.A.'S*, are as follows:

OBJECTS

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers is an educational organization that seeks to unite the forces of home, school and community in behalf of children and youth. Its Objects are:

To promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, Church and community.

To raise the standards of home life.

To secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth.

To bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child.

To develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for each child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education.

The National Congress of Colored Parents and Teachers operates in states having segregated schools. Parent-teacher groups associated with Catholic schools are usually under the direction of the National Catholic Welfare Conference.

Parent-teacher organizations of all types are concerned with the development of coöperative interaction between the professional staff of the schools and the people of the community in order that children and youth may live and learn in better ways. They have no preconceived ideas about good education which they wish to foist on the schools.

There are some organizations however, which seek to impose a particu-

lar kind of educational philosophy or educational program on public schools. Typical of these, although less extreme than many, is the one which calls itself "Friends of the Public Schools". It publishes a periodical that reaches most educational leaders and is also sent to many lay persons. Major General Amos A. Fries, Regional Director, Southwestern Region, writes as follows about what his organization seeks:

We stand for public schools open to all children covering the primary and high-school grades. We might add that we have never been enthusiastic about the junior colleges as a part of the public school system. We are opposed to any public tax money being used for private schools of any description whether church, benevolent, or operated for business.

We believe that the public schools up to and including the high school should stay very closely to the fundamentals; that is, reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, history, and geography. In high school they should go further than the beginners in science and higher mathematics as well as literature. We believe that controversial subjects should not be brought up in primary grades nor in high schools until the last two years, and only then, questions about which the children have sufficient knowledge to discuss them and on subjects that do not involve racial or religious questions. Finally, throughout all the teaching there must be kept an atmosphere of high morality and thorough-going patriotism.

History and civics should be so taught that the children will thoroughly believe in the American system and have reverence for the great men of the Revolution and Colonial periods, who brought about our government, wrote the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. I think any educator in American public schools or private schools for that matter, who does not inculcate a tremendous love of our American way of living is bad and should be eliminated.

In teaching of other governments they should not be in any way pointed out as superior to our own, for they are not. Differences may well be pointed out to the advantage of the child. We are absolutely against any so-called "academic freedom" that will permit any teachers or educators in colleges to teach foreign isms (and we understand to teach means practically to advocate), foreign ideologies, immoralities, and any sectarian religion in any public school.

In fact, we believe in the United States government (not all its laws) first, last and all of the time and if our children are not taught so that they believe the same thing they are not being properly taught. We believe, however, that they should be given a thorough knowledge of the other governments and other peoples as we give a thorough knowledge of the multi-
plication table.⁵

⁵ Letters from Amos A. Fries, Regional Director, Southwestern Region, Friends of the Public Schools, Washington, D.C., dated December 17, 1948, and December 4, 1951.

Organizations with a Secondary Interest in Education

Business Organizations. The National Association of Manufacturers publishes material which it supplies to schools. All booklets and films are available without charge to teachers and education groups. The catalog of this association, entitled *For Teachers and Students*, lists fifteen titles. A single periodical, *Trends*, is mentioned. Five motion picture films are available. All publications are directed toward developing belief in the philosophy of free enterprise, as interpreted by the National Association of Manufacturers. An example is *The Free Enterprise System*, by Phelps Adams. According to the catalog:

Mr. Adams' authoritative article tells the student what we have, and why we have it. In simple terms, he defines the American economic system—and explains who runs it. He puts this system up against the various forms of collectivism and shows precisely why this system has outproduced them all.

The American Association of Advertising Agencies and the Association of National Advertisers, like the NAM, are interested in presenting to the schools their understanding of our economic system. Frederick R. Gamble, President of the AAAA, states:

The principal program that we would like to see adopted, extending down to the lowest feasible grade, is one to gain wider and more accurate understanding of the American *economic system*—what kind of system we enjoy, why and how it is able to provide the high standard of living that it does, and how it can be made to work even better Second, in the teaching of economics, we see the need for a more accurate point of view: we would like to see proper emphasis on the function of *distribution* in our economy Many economic textbooks which we have examined give little or no attention to distribution. It seems to receive nowhere near the emphasis in economics instruction that do production, finance, etc. This is a serious omission, since it is important that people understand the service that distribution renders in return for what distribution "costs". Lack of understanding can and does result in actions by government or decisions by business men themselves, that are harmful to our economic system or may even set it back. Thirdly, in any consideration of distribution we should like to see full attention given to the dynamic activities in distribution—those business activities which stimulate buyers to buy Finally,

in preparing students for business careers, we should like to see a program of more detailed attention to the use of advertising. Future executives who may some day make advertising decisions should know how to approach them intelligently.⁶

Gamble's point of view is also held by Elon G. Borton, President and General Manager of the Advertising Federation of America. He says:

Perhaps I can sum it up best by saying that our organization would like to see the secondary schools encourage their pupils to learn more about advertising and its place in our economy. We think that advertising is such an important factor in our daily lives that everyone should know more about its workings, its weaknesses and its strengths, and to know how to get the most beneficial results from the advertising which he sees and hears.⁷

A joint publication of the American Association of Advertising Agencies and the Association of National Advertisers, under the title of *How Can the American People Be Given a Better Understanding of Our Economic System*, gives five principles of this system:

1. Private property,
2. A free market,
3. Profit and wage incentives,
4. Competition,
5. Government regulation—but not government control.

In order to have these principles accepted widely, these two organizations propose:

That we build a nation-wide educational campaign on how and why the American economic system is able to do what it does—using advertisements, booklets, motion pictures, radio, and any other media of communication that fit our purpose. And that such a program be limited only to the amount of time it takes to re-educate this generation of the American people.⁸

⁶ Letters from Frederick R. Gamble, President of AAAA, New York, New York, dated January 14, 1949, and Richard L. Scheidker, dated November 23, 1951.

⁷ Letters from Elon G. Borton, President and General Manager of the Advertising Federation of America, New York, New York, dated January 10, 1949, and October 23, 1951.

⁸ *How Can the American People be Given a Better Understanding of Our Economic System?* (Joint ANA-AAAA Committee on Economic Education.), p. 31.

While this proposal does not direct itself to schools, its results will inevitably be felt by the schools as individuals and groups in local districts become impressed and seek to determine what their own schools will do.

A third illustration of the activities and desires of a business group is found in the program and publications of the Institute of Life Insurance. Helen M. Thal of this institute writes:

Because of its important contributions to family, community, and nation, we believe life insurance has a logical place in school and college curricula. Young people should know the role of life insurance in community and national life and should be informed concerning the use of life insurance in creating personal and family security.⁹

The Institute of Life Insurance publishes pamphlets, charts, and films. It lists seventeen pamphlets as available to schools without cost, although in some cases only a limited quantity is free, larger orders being sold at a low price. It also loans three films. The report of the Educational Division of the Institute for the year 1947 has the following information about the extent to which the publications and films are used:

Over 207,000 pieces of material were sent out during the past year to students, teachers, school authorities, and libraries. In addition, over 45,000 pieces were distributed to companies, underwriter associations, and life insurance organizations, mostly for school use. . . . Since the war there has been a growing interest on the part of students and teachers, at both high school and college level, in information about career opportunities for young people in various lines of business and industry. To meet the requests for information about vocational possibilities in life insurance the Institute has now produced three booklets in this field. . . . Most recent of these publications is a 72-page booklet entitled *Careers for Youth in Life Insurance*. . . . Printed in September, the first 15,000 copies of the booklet were quickly exhausted. . . . A second printing of 15,000 including certain minor revisions suggested by various people, was made in December.¹⁰

This report states that 33,000 copies of *A Career in Life Insurance Sales and Service* have been distributed. Thirty-eight thousand copies of the *Handbook of Life Insurance* were sold for use in schools. The popularity of picture books extends to life insurance, as is shown by the report that

⁹ Letters from Helen M. Thal, Institute of Life Insurance, New York, New York, dated January 17, 1949, and October 30, 1951.

¹⁰ Institute of Life Insurance, *Report of the Ninth Annual Meeting*, (1947), pp. 75-

1,700,000 copies of the picture story book, *The Man Who Runs Interference*, had been sent out.

The United States Chamber of Commerce is an example of another type of business organization interested in education. Its members are not drawn from a single type of business, like manufacturing, advertising, or life insurance. It admits any person engaged in business or who is a member of a profession and who wishes to join. Its base is in local organizations. Hardly a single community of any size in the nation is without a local chamber of commerce or corresponding organization. This organization has been in favor of more funds for public education for some time and has been actively supporting campaigns for funds in many states and in many communities. At its 36th Annual Meeting, it adopted a policy declaration on education. Excerpts from this follow:

Adequate education is essential to the maintenance of our democratic institutions and the expansion of our economy. Increased economic and individual well-being of the people accompanies rising educational levels . . .

An equal educational opportunity, of an extent and type considered essential by educational authorities, is the birthright of every child in each state of the Union. Wherever inadequate educational facilities exist, the proper expenditures should be made to improve them.

Business can well afford to share in this necessary expense in consideration of the gains that inevitably result from a proper and adequate educational program. Business should stimulate the finding of funds on a fair and equitable basis for increasing and expanding educational effort. The Chamber of Commerce of the United States urges all of its member bodies, state and local chambers of commerce, to promote improved support for education at their state and local levels.

The needs of education, which we have repeatedly emphasized, should be met by the states from their own resources. To seek Federal Aid for general education is to invite Federal control . . .¹¹

Working closely with the local chambers of commerce, but having their own distinct organization, are the groups of younger men who make up the various chapters of the United States Junior Chamber of Commerce. The executive vice-president of this national organization writes:

The Jaycees' number one interest every year is our work with children. Our members take an active interest in and coöperate with the schools in their communities. You will find Jaycees on many school boards.

¹¹ *Policy Declaration on Education*, approved at the 36th Annual Meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, April 28, 1948.

Jaycee safety, fire prevention, junior policemen, junior baseball, tennis, bowling, etc. projects all operate in coöperation with the schools, in many centers for teenagers and in many other ways working with authorities to provide facilities to keep "kids" busy so as to reduce juvenile delinquency.

Carrying out the Jaycees' desire to have the schools teach the values of our freedoms, we have just completed our fifth annual "Voice of Democracy" contest in which a million U. S. students say "I Speak for Democracy." This is a radio script contest co-sponsored by the National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters and the Radio and Television Manufacturers of America and endorsed by the U. S. Office of Education. Significantly this contest utilizes radio, the greatest means of mass communication available to us today, to expound freedoms and truths to the peoples of the world.¹²

Labor Organizations. As might be expected, the American Federation of Labor has an interest in public education. Historically, organized labor has been a close friend of public education and has often stood between it and serious troubles. At the November 15, 1948, meeting of the Federation, the Executive Committee reported its views on education to the convention. Excerpts are given below:

In order to provide that equality of opportunity which is the ideal of America, our efforts to eliminate discrimination must begin with education. Inequalities in educational opportunities grow into bridgeless chasms between individuals as the years go by. We have not yet rid ourselves of illiteracy or provided for all children the quality of teaching that would enable them to develop their full capacities to deal constructively with the problems of living.

One of the fundamental principles upon which our democracy rests is local self-rule. This basic principle will remain effective only through local control of education. In order to preserve this local control and also provide equal educational opportunities for all citizens, the Federal Government should supplement local appropriations. We believe that not only should there be equal educational opportunities available to all in every part of the country, but effective opportunity for every child to avail himself of the opportunity.

Vocational Education . . . One of the points to which considerable adverse criticism is directed in some states is the provision that requires a fixed number of hours for specialized vocational work. It is held by some that this

¹² Letter from Robert D. Ladd, executive vice-president of the United States Junior Chamber of Commerce, Tulsa, Oklahoma, dated December 15, 1951.

fixed hourly requirement for "vocational workers" forces the school to be limited severely in its academic work. All trade unionists believe the academic work to be of equally as great importance as the vocational work for the pupil. . . .¹³

The Congress of Industrial Organizations publishes material that presents its ideas about many parts of education. According to George T. Guernsey, "Most of these would be useful in secondary school education in presenting the viewpoint of the CIO."¹⁴ In its pamphlet entitled *Labor and Education* are the following statements indicating the CIO position:

Education for Democracy.

The American labor movement has been the strongest organized force in support of free public schools. It has therefore also been a voice for the children of millions of unorganized workers and farmers. Today organized labor is in the forefront of the fight to extend equal educational opportunity to every boy and girl in the United States regardless of race, creed or color. Workers know the importance of "educating for democracy" and of building a public school system which will meet the needs of common people living in the twentieth century.¹⁵

Textbook and Curriculum Content.

There will be no free world and no free labor movement unless the boys and girls of America are brought up to believe firmly in freedom and to understand its responsibilities. Curriculum and textbook content hold an important place in the development of citizen attitudes. The National Association of Manufacturers recognizes this and has a textbook committee to examine social studies, history, economics, and civics texts and to prepare study helps, movies, and lectures for free distribution to the schools and colleges of America. Quite naturally, this committee protests the content of "liberal" texts.

Long before there was a single piece of material for public school use available from the labor movement, the NAM was "feeding" its free pamphlet materials to apparently unsuspecting teachers. By 1937 the NAM's "adult education" had begun in earnest; in that year, Robert Brady of the University of California estimates the NAM spent \$36,000,000 on "public relations." Since then Professor Brady estimates that the sum has been doubled. This does not take into account the "tax-supported" deluge of

¹³ *Report of the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor to the 67th Convention*, Cincinnati, Ohio, November 15, 1948, pp. 127,161,164,166-168.

¹⁴ Letter from George T. Guernsey, Associate Director of Education, CIO, Washington, D.C., dated December 28, 1948.

¹⁵ Congress of Industrial Organizations, *Labor and Education*, p. 1.

institutional advertising which has had a tremendous increase since the war started. One ad which opened with the gag line "Why don't you read me a story any more, daddy?" took two-thirds of a newspaper page to explain that "daddy" was all tired out from "post-war planning" trying to save enough out of taxes to provide jobs for returning soldiers.

The anti-democratic propaganda which has characterized much of the NAM program was challenged recently by one of America's foremost business leaders, Charles E. Wilson, president of General Electric and vice president of the War Production Board, when he warned the annual meeting of the NAM against "right-wing" reaction.¹⁶

There are twenty-five pamphlets published by this organization which it believes will be of value to secondary school students in giving them an understanding of where the CIO stands on important issues.

Service Clubs. Many communities have service clubs such as Kiwanis, Rotary, Lions, Optimists, and Exchange. Few of these have programs which impinge upon public education, though many of them are interested in the problems of local school systems as they affect the members of local clubs. Some of them sponsor boys' work by members. Typical of such programs is that of the Optimist International. This organization encourages the establishment of Junior Optimist Clubs for high-school youth. In its manual entitled *Beginning Your Boys' Work Program*, it urges that members of each local committee contact youngsters personally, meet them on playgrounds, hold parties for them in homes, and explain the fundamentals of Junior Optimist. It goes on to state:

As a second step, approach the Board of Education with your plan, asking their permission to send announcements throughout the school system. Plan a little program . . . perhaps a sports movie or some outstanding speaker who will draw the students' interest. Most schools will grant the use of their auditorium for service programs such as this, free of charge.¹⁷

Each club has an adult leader who is one of the local Optimists.

The activities in which each club will engage will depend upon local conditions. The club leader will do well to take fully into consideration the changes that take place in the likes and desires of the members of the club and adapt the club program accordingly. The normal club should include

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 6, 7, 8.

¹⁷ *Beginning Your Boys' Work Program*, Optimist International, p. 10.

in its program athletics, and social and literary elements. Boys love sports and it is a very easy matter for the leader to allow an overemphasis on athletics. Any one form of activity makes for one-sided development, which is contrary to the aims of Junior Optimist organization.¹⁸

Many of the Optimist clubs sponsor summer camping programs for the junior members. Nearly all of them try to work closely with the schools.

The YMCA. George B. Corwin of the National Commission of the Young Men's Christian Association states:

The Y.M.C.A. would hope that the public schools would accept or encourage (a) education for family life, (b) improvement of interracial practices and inter-group relations, (c) education for responsible citizenship, (d) education for international understanding, (e) education for health education, (f) guidance and counselling.¹⁹

This organization sponsors the establishing of Hi-Y clubs in public high schools.

Prohibition Organizations. The National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, according to Estelle Bozeman, Director of Scientific Temperance Instruction, seeks to make people total abstainers. She writes:

We as teachers have too long said "teach the facts and let the children make up their own minds." In the past year I have definitely studied this point of view and believe that the condition in which we find the social life of young people is directly due to this theory. It is true that some folk drink moderately and live to a ripe old age and we have no way of determining who these folk are, but we do have a way to determine that total abstinence will make for a cleaner, more wholesome life for every individual and that the world will have been made better by abstinence. We, therefore, aim for our teaching to cause the individual to be a total abstainer.²⁰

This organization provides a study guide for teachers which tells in detail how to teach about alcoholic beverages in order to achieve the ends it seeks. It also publishes a series of small pamphlets.

¹⁸ *Friend of the Boy*, Activities of Optimist International, St. Louis, Missouri, pp. 29-30.

¹⁹ Letters from George B. Corwin, Secretary for the Youth Program of the Y.M.C.A., New York, New York, dated January 11, 1949, and October 25, 1951.

²⁰ Letters from Estelle Bozeman, Director of Scientific Temperance Instruction, WCTU, Evanston, Illinois, dated January 12, 1949, and November 26, 1951.

Patriotic Organizations. The organizations whose membership served in the past wars of the United States, or whose ancestors served in past wars, are important pressure groups which impinge on the schools. Some of these patriotic organizations label their own particular set of ideas "American" and tend to call all other ideas "un-American". There are chapters or posts of one or more in almost every school district of any size. Those members who are eager to get elected to office in the national organizations or who have deep convictions that the national organization is unquestionably right try to get the schools to teach what the organization advocates.

Chief among these organizations is the American Legion. One of its main activities is carrying on an Americanism program. At the national convention held in Minneapolis in 1918, a National Americanism Commission was established. The resolution setting up the commission reads as follows:

We recommend the establishment of a National Americanism Commission of the American Legion, whose duty shall be the endeavor to realize in the United States the basic ideal of this Legion of 100-per-cent Americanism through the planning, establishment and conduct of a continuous, constructive educational system designed to:

- (1) Combat all anti-American tendencies, activities and propaganda;
- (2) Work for the education of immigrants, prospective American citizens and alien residents in the principles of Americanism;
- (3) Inculcate the ideals of Americanism in the citizen population, particularly the basic American principle that the interests of all the people are above those of any special interest or any so-called class or section of the people;
- (4) Spread throughout the people of the nation the information as to the real nature and principles of American government;
- (5) Foster the teachings of Americanism in all schools.²¹

At present the Commission carries on several educational activities. Its efforts are described in *The Americanism Program of the American Legion*, published by the American Legion Extension Institute in 1948.

The Legion has established a national policy covering its views in its relation to public education. It endeavors to get this policy accepted widely by local posts and local schools. This policy is illustrated by the following excerpts from the pamphlet on the Americanism Program:

²¹ *The Americanism Program of the American Legion*, Lesson No. 3, Third Term, 1948 Edition, distributed by American Legion Extension Institute, Indianapolis, Indiana, pp. 12-13.

The relationship of the American Legion to the schools of America is that of a friendly and firm supporter of free education as a means of keeping and improving a free civilization.

. . . . The American Legion has taken a positive approach to the training of American youth in the rights and privileges, the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. The basic lessons of citizenship and good government are being experienced objectively by millions of youths of all ages through participation in the Legion's positive objective-training programs.

Some of the objectives and principles established by the American Legion for creating and maintaining better educational programs are:

Coöperate closely with the National Education Association and state and local education groups; with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and state and local PTA organizations; and with the United States Office of Education and other interested groups.

Establish teachers' salary schedules on a professional basis, adequate to attract and retain well-qualified instructors in the teaching profession.

Guarantee equalization of educational opportunity free from federal control.

Teach thoroughly American history, Civics, Geography, English and kindred subjects vital to the building of future citizenship.

Instill in youth a love of country and the willingness to defend this land and its principles against all enemies.

Establish supreme faith in American constitutional government and provide daily practice of such ideals in the school.

Destroy false propaganda and eliminate the teachings of those who advocate changes in our way of life—opposing the original concepts laid down by our founding fathers. This can best be done by the best education of our children in a better knowledge of the American way of life.

Teach children the problems involved in the ever-increasing importance of international affairs.²²

American Education Week, founded in 1921 by the joint action of the Legion and the National Education Association, is intended to acquaint the parents and citizens of every community with the achievements, aims, and needs of the schools. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers and the United States Office of Education have joined the original sponsors. These four agencies plan the general theme for the week and the day-by-day topics. Special literature is prepared by the National Americanism Commission of the Legion for distribution through Legion departments to posts in local communities.

Because of its interest in developing good citizens, the Legion has been actively interested in educating aliens in the duties and responsibilities of

²² *Ibid.*, pp. 21-22.

citizenship after they have declared their intention to become part of this nation. Many Legion posts conduct schools to help aliens meet the problems of everyday life in America as well as to assist them in becoming ready to take out citizenship papers.

The National High School Oratorical Contest is sponsored by the American Legion:

The major purpose of this activity is to develop a deeper knowledge and understanding of the Constitution of the United States on the part of high school students. Other objectives are those of leadership, the ability to think and speak clearly and intelligently, and the preparation for acceptance of the duties and responsibilities, the rights and privileges of American citizenship.²³

The Legion has a specific educational program which it encourages schools to use in order "to build patriotism in our youth and to develop a thorough understanding of proper Flag display and courtesy." It also seeks to encourage a good program in health education. The Legion is desirous of eliminating from schools texts which are unacceptable to it. Its statement about texts is as follows:

Realizing that America cannot have collectivism and socialism, no matter how they are disguised, and the American form of government, and the American way of life, at one and the same time, the Americanism Commission remains actively engaged in a campaign to remove all un-American and subversive textbooks from the public schools of the nation.²⁴

In addition to the major programs mentioned above, the Legion encourages local posts to carry on community educational programs. Suggestions for such programs include: "forums on current community developments . . . hobby classes for the young . . . the establishment of a kindergarten . . . and occupational instruction for boys."

The Veterans of Foreign Wars is another patriotic organization with an interest in education. The Americanism department of the Veterans of Foreign Wars was established several years ago to foster stronger Americanism among all citizens. It defines the term as follows:

What is Americanism: Webster's dictionary defines the word as "attachment or loyalty to the United States, its traditions, interests or ideals."

²³ *Ibid.*, p. 29.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 34.

The Veterans of Foreign Wars goes further to define Americanism as meaning "an unfailing love of country, loyalty to its institutions and ideals, eagerness to defend it against all enemies; and a desire to secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and posterity."²⁵

This organization publishes material on "How to Spot Pro-Communists" and "How to Spot Pro-Fascists." These publications show what it believes to be the extreme views between which Americanism lies:

HOW TO SPOT PRO-COMMUNISTS

Identification of pro-Communists is not always easy. More than single statements or other evidence generally is necessary to determine that a person or organization is advocating the Communist "party line." Watch for these identifications:

1. Labeling as "Fascists" or "Fascism" all persons, organizations, actions or statements opposing Communism.
2. Describing the United States, or Democracy, disparagingly as "capitalism" or "imperialism." Using such words as "proletariat" and "bourgeois" (boorzhwa).
3. Unqualified assertions that Russia is right and the United States wrong.
4. Declaring that U.S. foreign policies are not designed for world peace—and praising Russian efforts as being closer to the real solution.
5. Constant criticism of democratic principles, and hints that we could well afford to adopt some of Russia's.
6. Describing Wall Street as governing the United States.
7. Encouraging class discrimination.
8. Favorable Communist support given to the suspected person or organization.
9. Sponsoring or working with an ultra-liberal or outright communist group.
10. Describing Democracy as dead or dying.

HOW TO SPOT PRO-FACISTS

Pro-Fascists generally pose as being 100-per-cent Americans. They like to identify themselves as champions of the United States Constitution and liberty, as Christians and God-fearers. What they really advocate, however, would destroy the true democratic meaning of those terms. Watch for these indications:

1. Labeling as "Communists" or "Communism" all persons, organizations, actions or statements opposing Fascism.

²⁵ "Americanism," Americanism Department of the Veterans of Foreign Wars of the United States.

2. Opposition to international understanding and unity for world peace. Belittling United Nations efforts.
3. Advocating United States isolationism. Proclaiming Americans to be the only worthwhile people on earth.
4. Condemning all organized labor as "Communitic" or "obstructive."
5. Favoring "big business" or "management" over labor.
6. Advocating extreme government controls.
7. Divide and conquer. Arousing suspicion, fear or hate between classes, races, and creeds through anti-Jew, anti-Negro, anti-Catholic, anti-Protestant, anti-foreign-born, anti-Brotherhood propaganda.
8. Defense of recognized "super-patriots" or "super-Americans"- Fascists generally described as worthy leaders.
9. Proclaiming war and other forms of violence to be the best solution for most problems.
10. Declaring that individual's religious obligations supercede his loyalty to country.²⁶

One of the nineteen suggestions sent by the Americanism Department to local posts of the Veterans of Foreign Wars suggests that it cooperate with boards of education for improvement of schools, textbooks, and teaching standards.

The American Veterans of World War II, known as Amvets, has one current resolution which calls upon

all educators in the universities, colleges, secondary and elementary schools throughout the nation to include Civics, American History, Social Sciences, American Government or other related courses, a practical non-partisan course in citizenship training that includes a clear understanding of the organization and operation of political parties and their relation to the people and to local, state, and federal government.²⁷

The Domestic Affairs Platform for 1948-49 of the American Veterans' Committee, another patriotic organization, has one section dealing with education:

1. We urge action on the part of federal and state governments to provide improved educational facilities and teachers adequately trained and paid,

²⁶ Mimeographed, Department of Americanism, Veterans of Foreign Wars of the United States.

²⁷ Resolution of Amvets, dated July 20, 1948.

and universal equality of educational opportunities without segregation or discrimination.

2. We oppose the use of public funds for the direct or indirect support of denominational schools.

3. We condemn any limitations upon academic freedom and violations of civil liberties in the school system.

4. We oppose any plan to establish segregated regional study for Negro students and other minority groups.²⁸

One resolution relating to education was passed at the 1948 convention of this organization.

We demand the abolition of the practice of Jim Crow racial and religious quotas in all universities and schools, and the replacement of this system by a policy of admission based on merit alone.

We further wish free access to books and magazines in the schools, ceasing the process of banning.²⁹

Another patriotic group is the Daughters of the American Revolution. A resolution adopted by the DAR on April 23, 1948, reads:

Teaching Young America—Resolve 1, that the 57th Continental Congress, Daughters of the American Revolution, reaffirm the resolution on "Teaching Young America" adopted by the 56th Continental Congress of 1947, namely:

"Whereas, one of the most subtle and dangerous methods of implanting false and un-American ideas in the minds of children and youths is either by loose and careless interpretation or by deliberate misrepresentation of the true facts of history, the integrity of great American characters, and the principles of the Government of the United States, whether in talks or in textbooks, in biographies or historical novels;

Resolved, that the National Society, Daughters of the American Revolution dedicate itself to the responsibility of keeping class rooms and public libraries free from false and insidious doctrines and interpretations.³⁰

The DAR maintains and administers a loan fund which distributes money for the education of youth, upon request, according to the rules and regulations of the respective states. It operates a contest to select high-school girls who are to receive a four-day all expense trip to

²⁸ "Domestic Affairs Platform," *AVC Bulletin*, December, 1948, p. 6.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

³⁰ Resolution of 57th Continental Congress, DAR, 1948.

Washington, D.C., so that they may see the federal government in action. It encourages local chapters to operate Good Citizenship Medal Contests. These are recommended for the graduating classes of elementary, junior, and senior high schools.

The Sons of Confederate Veterans publishes *A Protest against Provincialism*, which deals with the way in which the history of the South is treated in textbooks. In criticizing the presentation of material about Plymouth Colony in contrast to the Virginia Colony, it states: ". . . the perfection of one colony is introduced, with nothing set down that would tend to detract therefrom. In the case of the other plantation, little attention is given to its merits, whilst disproportionate space is given to matters which create the discreditable impression . . ." The publication asserts that disproportionate space is given to the New England Colonies although ". . . official figures show that during the greater part of two centuries, or from 1630 to 1790, there were but two decades wherein Massachusetts could show numerical superiority to Virginia. So much for population. In territorial extent, Virginia led Massachusetts, as did several other colonies. The matter of superlative importance we shall not attempt to discuss."

This pamphlet goes on to state that the word "national" as used to tell of the establishing of the nation when the Constitution was adopted would have been extremely offensive to the writers of that historic document. "For, by the motion of a Connecticut delegate to the Convention that framed the Constitution, the word 'national' was ordered stricken out, so that it would nowhere appear in relation to the federal republic they were creating." It also states that in many textbooks and other publications the term

"abolitionists" [is used] . . . as if these reformers were always identified with the idea of "loyalty to the Union." Contrary expressions are applied to slave-holders. As a matter of fact, the latter were upholders of the Constitution as created by the founders; whilst the extreme abolitionists, on the other hand, were the most violent disunionists to be found in the entire country. The United States Constitution was not denounced and copies thereof publicly burned in the South, but in the North, amid the "execration"—as Abraham Lincoln expressed it—of good Americans everywhere. Lincoln's condemnation is apparently forgotten; or, if known, patently ignored.⁸¹

The general point of view of the pamphlet is expressed well by the following excerpt:

⁸¹ *A Protest against Provincialism*, p. 10.

The public has a right to demand that textbooks used in schools supported by the taxpayers' money should interpret all parts of our country in terms of the whole. The South should be interpreted in terms of the federal republic, which it preponderantly helped to create. And we think "preponderantly" is justified, since all acquisitions of territory from the Alleghenies to the Pacific came into the Union under Southern leadership and initiative. Each new continental expansion was accompanied by threats of secession in New England because, as one New Englander then expressed it: "The influence of our part of the Union must (necessarily) be diminished by the acquisition of more weight at the other extremity."

We should not, in a spirit of equally narrow misunderstanding, challenge the New Englander's natural alarm; but textbook writers should be honest in mentioning it. If so, they will not continue to ascribe the causes of sectional difference wholly to the scheming of what is censoriously called the "southern slavocracy." Such historians should know, or be taught, that the seeds of sectional dissension were laid in the field of economics-when the so-called "moral issue" was not under discussion.³²

The Sons of the Revolution is a patriotic society which advocates the mandatory teaching of American history in the schools:

A primary responsibility of the Sons of the Revolution to the nation is to perpetuate the principles of free government as were conceived, fought for, and put into effect by the ancestors of our members.

There is much evidence that our educational system in both public and private schools has neglected to educate the youth of America in the institutions and ideals of these United States, its history and its Constitution.

Therefore, it is proposed that the General Society at Triennial Meeting assembled in St. Louis, Missouri, on June 19, 1946, resolute as follows:

Resolved: That each State Society assume the responsibility of preparing and have presented to the respective State Legislatures where no such law is now in effect, a Bill that makes it mandatory that beginning with the Seventh Grade or Primary Schools continuing through High School, College or University, courses of study shall be put into effect, teaching history of the United States, its institutions and ideals, and the Constitution and the form of Government that has made us this great nation, such bill in substance providing:

A. In all public and private schools located within the State, there shall be given regular courses of instruction in the Constitution of the United States and in American History.

B. Such instruction shall begin not later than the Seventh Grade and shall continue in high school, normal schools, college or university, such course of study to be carefully selected and adopted by the Superintendent of Schools with the advice and counsel of patriotic organizations,

³² *Ibid.*, p. 15.

In the depressed Thirties, new impetus was given to the movement. For as incomes fell, tax rates spiraled upward.

Governments spent more in every established field of activity, and then began spending in new fields. Taxpayers were feeling the pinch.

Today, in thirty-six states there are taxpayer associations.

What the 36 Do

These thirty-six associations are dedicated to the principle which first inspired the movement—good government. They owe allegiance to no one but the citizens of their own states. They call themselves by various names—leagues, councils, federations.

The objectives of these organizations are:

1. The elimination of waste in government spending
2. The efficient handling of the public business
3. Increased public understanding of government problems
4. Increased citizen participation in government
5. A tax structure which permits a strong, healthy economy.

Who Supports the Taxpayer Movement

The price of good government—in terms of the dollars which a citizen organization costs—is quite modest.

The average state organization has a headquarters, with a small office staff. Its personnel includes a director, often a publicity man, trained research people, and field workers. The annual cost of this staff varies according to size and need, and is always small in relation to the economies which can directly credited to the staff's efforts.

Naturally, there is a minimum of funds which such an organization needs to do its job properly. State organizations look to business, industry, agriculture, and public-spirited individuals for financial support. Participation in the program is regarded by contributors as a regular business operating expense.

Local citizen organizations get their financial support from individual membership dues, from home owners, retail merchants, and small business concerns.

The national clearing house for information on problems of these associations is the Tax Foundation. The Tax Foundation concentrates on producing a flow of information on problems of federal, state, and local governments. Its large research staff assembles and digests the facts, and produces authoritative studies of trends in tax and fiscal problems. Upon request by a state association, the Foundation field staff—and specialists on its research staff—give help to the state group on special problems too large for a state association to tackle alone.⁸⁴

⁸⁴ *The Citizen and the Public Interest* (The Tax Foundation).

The material presented by the Tax Foundation appears to be the kind that would underlie the examination of governmental expenditures by all persons who wish to have public funds expended prudently. This is a worthy purpose. It may possibly be that the national leadership of a taxpayer movement in this country is concerned with prudent public expenditures. The publications of the Tax Foundation use the phrase "good government." Good government is, of course, variously interpreted, even by taxpayer organizations. Some of these organizations appear to believe that that government is best which taxes least. Others believe that taxes should be increased in order to support activities that are needed and that are managed well, and that taxes should be decreased wherever they support activities not needed and not well managed. This, of course, leads to the question of what activities are needed and what are well-managed. There is naturally much disagreement among the people and among taxpayer organizations on answers to this question.

Still other groups believe that all taxes are bad and endeavor to get them reduced by whatever means are available.

Another question in connection with taxpayer organizations, which is reflected in the publications of the Tax Foundation, is the source of their funds. The implication of published material is that this is a citizens' movement—that it is the way in which the individual citizen can effectively associate with his fellows to get something done about good government. Because few taxpayer associations reveal the sources of their funds, they are successful in creating the impression that they are concerned about the average citizen. It would be extremely interesting to examine carefully the books of a taxpayers' association in a single state or of the Tax Foundation itself. Such an examination would reveal what proportion of the funds come from small citizens and what proportions come from large corporations or from business organizations.

Some state taxpayer associations are very sensitive to questions about who provides their money. At one time, when debating the issue of state support of public education with the executive secretary of the tax research association of a western state, the superintendent of schools in a large city stated that he had never been able to get a list of the membership of the tax research association nor of the contributors to its operating fund. On a public platform he asked the secretary to specify the chief contributors, pointing out that in a democracy we like to see all the cards on the table and know who pays for the propaganda. In the heat of the debate

the secretary promised that he would provide this information; nevertheless, when asked to make good his promise, he read a legal document stating that, no matter what he had said in public, the names of the contributors to the association could not be revealed.

The case just cited may not be typical. However, where there is such secrecy about records, this large question is left open: Do some taxpayer organizations serve interests other than those of the individual taxpaying citizen? Are they concerned chiefly with relieving tax pressure on large corporate enterprises?

The state and local taxpayer organizations can be divided into three groups in respect to their attitude toward public education.

The first group is made up of organizations that carry on research and present the facts they discover directly to the people through their publications, or to the representatives of the people in various legislative bodies, without taking stands on political issues. The executive director of the Connecticut Public Expenditure Council, Inc., states:

We are a state-wide organization and have done much research in various municipalities throughout the state. We did much of the research which formed the background of legislation passed two years ago to improve the formula for state aid to schools and which resulted in a large increase in the grants.³⁵

Similar activity is reported by C. K. Alexander, Research Director of the Wisconsin Taxpayers Alliance:

The Wisconsin Taxpayers Alliance is a research organization. It does no lobbying for or against particular legislation. Its job is to dig out the facts and present them to public officials and citizens alike in order that more intelligent decisions may be made about government affairs.³⁶

The Ohio Public Expenditure Council is typical of the second group which, while carrying on research, does, nevertheless, stand for or against particular measures before the legislature or before the people. D. H. Sutton, Research Director of this Council, writes:

It is significant to bear in mind that the Ohio Public Expenditure Council—being purely a non-partisan, non-political and non-lobbying, autonomous research organization—does not approach any of the educa-

³⁵ Letters from Carter W. Atkins, Hartford, Connecticut, dated February 10, 1949, and November 27, 1951.

³⁶ Letters from C. K. Alexander, dated March 2, 1949, and October 25, 1951.

tional problems with pre-conceived ideas. Our expressed opinions on school problems emanate directly from the basic facts developed through research studies conducted by our own staff. In this fundamental respect, the Council differs widely from the usual taxpayer organization, or for that matter from the average educational association. Both of these groups maintain legislative lobbies. The Ohio Public Expenditure Council appears before legislative committees only by request. One of the salient factors in the work of the Council emanates from the fact that it is invited by legislative committees, as an independent research organization, to present the results of its studies in so far as they relate to prevailing, pending, or proposed legislation affecting almost all phases of public spending.³⁷

According to Harold L. Henderson, Executive Director of the Minnesota Institute of Governmental Research, Inc., that organization rarely takes a position on public questions, its business being more in the nature of research.

The Pennsylvania Economy League, Inc., while closely resembling the institutions mentioned above, does take a more specific stand on school problems. A specialist in education in this league reports:

. . . the League has conducted numerous studies and surveys for school districts. These studies have always been at the request of the school officials and have dealt with such matters as capital outlay programs, debt service programs, administrative and fiscal studies, analysis of education needs shown by occupational and industrial surveys, and many studies of proposals for merging or methods of reorganizing administrative units.³⁸

The president of the league made the following statement:

The Pennsylvania Economy League stands four square for good schools, realizing fully that good schools are expensive but knowing well that one room elementary schools, small high schools, and inadequate school plants yield poor returns for what they cost.³⁹

The third group seem intent on tax reduction even at a loss to school efficiency and improvement. The New Jersey Taxpayers Association sent out a press release under date of December 4, 1948, which was aimed at reducing the expenditures for public education in that state. This press release contained the following material:

³⁷ Letters from D. H. Sutton, dated February 3, 1949, and January 16, 1952.

³⁸ Letters from Clarence E. Ackley, dated February 11, 1949, and November 27, 1951.

³⁹ "The Pennsylvania Economy League, Inc., Defines Its Policy Regarding Education," (Excerpt from address of Robert B. Murray, Jr., president, on October 14, 1948.)

Pointing out that the cost of education per pupil in New Jersey is among the highest in the nation, the New Jersey Taxpayers Association today called for greater citizen interest in education and cost of education throughout the State.

The Association believes (1) that education should be under local control; (2) that the interests of the child must be paramount; (3) that the teaching profession must be an honorable and decently paid profession; but (4) that the finances of the State and the taxpayers need not and must not be bankrupted in order to attain these objectives.

The cost of education is the largest single item in the cost of government in New Jersey. The present cost per pupil is well over \$200.00 and is today exceeded only by New York State.

. . . the average New Jersey citizen pays surprisingly little attention to school costs.

In suggesting ways to prompt citizen participation in school affairs and budgeting, the Association stated further in its proposed Platform and Program:

A reform which the Association will continue to urge is a requirement that all school budgets be subject to approval by referendum or by the municipal governing body and that in any case where there is an increase in the total school budget over the preceding year a referendum vote shall be final only provided not less than 10 per cent of the registered voters approve.

On the other side of the United States, N. Bradford Trenham, General Manager of the California Taxpayer Association, is very much concerned about the way in which education expenses are rising. He points out that—

. . . . leaders of teachers organizations use these groups for political purposes.

We (governmental research men—taxpayer organizations) must resist efforts of loose thinkers to make school curriculum all inclusive and to make the school experience encompass all of life.

Trenham comes out openly with a statement as to his point of view about taxes in general when he writes as follows:

. . . . As in any other public function we must strive to do the best we can with the least drain on the people's earnings because the whole object of our nation is to provide as much freedom for persons as we possibly can, and taxes are a restraint on freedom.

He then expresses his opinion about public education and the activities of the leaders in it:

It is apparent that school promoters of the last century did not foresee the costs that would result when they set in motion machinery to keep the children of this nation in school until they were old enough to vote and then provided still further opportunities for adults as long as they lived. . . . There are many other things at the present time in the United States besides operating schools.

. . . . Let our friends, the educators, always remember that there are more educated people outside the school fraternity than there are in it. School men should come out of their defensive shells and talk truthfully and without exaggeration to business men and government research people. They should abandon their practice of trying to secure improvements by frightening the public with stories of teacher shortage and millions of children going without school.⁴⁰

The general point of view of taxpayer associations concerned with reducing taxes no matter what happens to public services is found in the quotation from the *Utah Taxpayer* for September-November, 1948.

. . . . if property tax relief is obtained it must come from our local school boards, county commissioners and city officials. They alone are the ones who impose and spend all property tax money. If such taxes are too high, these our own elected officials can lower them. While property taxes have jumped by leaps and bounds, other taxes have increased much faster. The answer to our tax problem is not the SHIFTING OF THE BURDEN, but rather the CUTTING OF THE TOTAL. There are no other shoulders able or willing to carry an additional load.

In any organization that includes a large variety of persons as members there are bound to be different points of view. Some taxpayer groups make a sincere effort to get all of the facts and place them before the people. Some make an effort to select only those facts that support the point of view that taxes should be reduced. Some have a genuine interest in the prudent expenditure of public funds. Some are concerned with the improvement of governmental structure, particularly with the reorganization of school districts. Some are interested only in the reduction of taxes. It is very difficult to get a clear picture, nation-wide, of the attitudes and aims of these organizations.

No attempt has been made in this chapter to picture comprehensively

⁴⁰ N. Bradford Trenham (General Manager, California Taxpayers Association), "Public Education in America," *The Tax Digest*, December, 1948.

all of the organizations that influence what happens in public education. Nor has any attempt been made to picture completely the influences of any one organization upon the school nor the interrelationships among the various organizations. Sufficient and definite illustrations have been offered to indicate the welter of forces amid which the school operates. It is clear that the schools of America are not turned over to school boards and their professional employees and then forgotten. Not only do professional organizations and organizations of schools exert influence on the schools, but all manner of other organizations in American life have direct or indirect influence. The schools are not separate and isolated from the world about them. The programs they offer and the support they secure are subject to influence and pressure at every turn.

Suggested Reading

H. K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* This volume is Part XII of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. It is a vigorous scholarly presentation of the many forces tending to limit the freedom of teachers. Some of the supporting evidence is now outdated, but the general argument is still worthy of serious attention.

R. H. Knapp, "Social Education and Citizen's Organizations," *Social Education* (April, 1950). The author examines the nature and function of citizen's organizations as they influence educational programs—especially in the social studies.

E. T. McSwain, "Parent-teacher Leadership for Better Schools," *Phi Delta Kappan* (December, 1949). The author pleads to make more effective use of PTA groups. He discusses, among other things, how PTA groups should try to help recruit young people for the teaching profession.

H. A. Overstreet, *Where Children Come First; a Study of the P.T.A. Idea*. A popular version of the rise of the PTA with great inspirational overtones. The intent seems to be more to inspire and persuade than to inform and explain. However, the book succeeds in making clear the purposes, history, and promise of the PTA.

W. O. Stanley, *Educational Policies and Citizens' Organizations in an Age of Confusion*. This important study shows that the citizen's organization has emerged as a necessary means of influencing public opinion and educational policy.

"What the P.T.A.'s Are Doing for Education," *National Parent-Teacher* (April, May, June, 1948). A state-by-state account of what the PTA is doing to influence education. The wide variety of activities indicates the extent of PTA influence in our public schools.

Unsolved Problems of American Educational Administration

CHAPTER 7

This nation was the first to offer free public education through the secondary school to all youth. Its commitment to universal education as a right, rather than to selective education as a privilege, is a magnificent venture. But, as with all pioneering, the venture has revealed many problems which are as yet unsolved. Most of the failure to provide fully adequate solutions comes because administrative theory is incomplete. Proposals for improvement come from people who have tried them and find that they seem to work in particular districts. Occasionally they will work in other districts. Occasionally they are suitable only for a few localities. Occasionally they have seemed to work because their results have not been fully understood.

This chapter attempts to set out some of the problems which are, as yet, not fully solved. Present ideas as to possible solutions will be presented. These ideas are drawn from experience. The conflict among such ideas creates the problems in most cases. These conflicts arise because proposals are not based upon tested administrative theory. The absence of such a body of theory is the basic problem. Scholars as well as practical administrators need to examine what is done with success and to winnow out of many practices the principles which can form the framework of a consistent and inclusive theory of educational administration. It is only when this has been done that it will be possible to invent new devices with considerable assurance that they will work if tried.

PROBLEM ONE: *What Is the Appropriate Size for a School District?*

Because families, neighborhoods, and people differ, the youth of any school district differ. Their needs, background, aims, values, and ambitions vary from one to another. These individual differences seem to indicate the need for a differentiated educational program. Some young people should be trained in the arts and sciences, some in the vocations, some in business, some in homemaking, and some in other fields. All will need to learn those understandings and ideals that are the common heritage of our nation and serve to keep us together as a people.

Some youth will have individual handicaps that need special attention. Youth with speech defects, defective sight or hearing, personality difficulties, and the like can be helped by the specially trained teacher. And these defects will also be found among children in the elementary school, where early correction is most desirable.

Each child should receive medical and dental inspection regularly as part of a sound program of public health. Each should have physical education. Each should receive good instruction in art and music.

Then there are the unusually gifted children, whose great talents may be wasted unless they are recognized early and trained properly. The school has a responsibility to discover and use rich human resources of this kind.

All this indicates that a school district must be large enough to provide sufficient pupils of any one type to justify the employment of a teacher. Whether we examine the multiple offerings of a good high school in order to determine a minimum sized district, or the needs of the atypical handicapped child, or the needs of the talented, or the specialists necessary to educate the average child, the results are about the same. An adequate school district should have, as a minimum, 300 students in a four-year high school.

But, in many areas of the country a school of this size would draw students from as far as thirty miles. Frequently, all-weather roads do not extend over these distances; so buses cannot travel to and from the school each day. Frequently people who are sixty miles apart, as would happen with families in opposite directions from the building, do not feel a community of interest. They may feel that the school is not their school and find it difficult if not impossible to become concerned about its improvement.

These, then, are the factors in the problem: (1) The necessity for a differentiated program for students in the high school; (2) the necessity for specialists to help the handicapped child in both elementary and secondary schools; (3) the necessity for specialists to assist the talented child; (4) the desirability of economy in school construction through the development of central units; (5) the desirability of keeping the schools close to the people; (6) the lack of adequate all-weather roads which buses can travel safely. What is the size of school district that will take all of these factors into account?

PROBLEM TWO: *What Should Be the Membership of School Boards?*

The lay board of education is the best device for keeping the schools close to the people. But it is not a perfect device. In some communities the board is part of a local political machine. In some it is controlled by special-interest groups. In some it is not representative of the people whom it serves. But these are the minority of instances. In the majority of cases the board is made up of sincere, well-meaning people.

Serious questions have been raised about the ability of well-meaning people to represent the community as a whole when they are drawn from a relatively small portion of its population. The National Education Association reports that school board members have more education than the average person in their districts and that the larger the district, the more education the members have.¹ Studies reported in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* show that boards in small school districts in Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, and Pennsylvania were, on the whole, made up of the more successful citizens of the communities.² *Labor and Education*, a publication of the CIO, states:

In the United States, almost all public schools are controlled by boards of education which are either elected or appointed by public officials. These boards determine, for the most part, the policies of our public schools. They select teaching and administrative personnel. They decide whether children shall study from textbooks which deal honestly and vigorously with current problems, or whether these books shall be barred from the schools. They decide whether the school shall be responsible for developing

¹ N.E.A. Research Division, "Status and Practices of Boards of Education," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXIV, No. 2 (April, 1946), pp. 47-83.

² K. O. Broady, "Small School Systems," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 1049.

an intelligent attitude toward minority groups, by acknowledging their valuable contributions to our way of life, or whether the prejudices and superstitions of the adult community shall be passed along to children. They decide whether teachers shall be free to join labor unions, civil liberty committees, and other anti-fascist groups, or whether membership in such organizations imperils "objectivity" and "fairness" in teaching. They decide whether the schools shall be used by adult groups for forum discussions of the social, economic, and political issues which affect our national life, and whether films and pamphlets dealing with these issues shall be made available through the schools. They decide, in short, the standard of education for the community. Labor can be of great help in guiding these important decisions toward the side of progress and democracy.

Four scholarly studies indicate just how much chance labor has to do this:

In a study published in *School and Society*, January 20, 1937, it was found that out of 967 school board members in 104 cities, 75 per cent were either business or professional men, while labor counted only 4 per cent, or 39 members. In George S. Counts' study "The Social Composition of Boards of Education" 3 per cent of the 6390 school board members were drawn from labor. W. W. Ludeman, in the *American School Board Journal* of February, 1939, found that in South Dakota more than 70 per cent of the 300 board members came from business, banking, and the professions, while labor was represented by less than 3 per cent . . . The fourth study, covering 1025 school board members in 205 high school districts in California, was made by James L. Snell in his unpublished M.A. thesis at Stanford University (1938). He reports six times as many representatives of proprietary, professional, and managerial groups as of labor. . . .

Packing school boards is as dangerous to democracy as packing the legislature. One group of the population cannot legislate for another. Neither can one type of group satisfactorily govern our public education.

Since the public schools of America are one of the greatest influences on the social attitude and thinking of the boys and girls of today, the workers of tomorrow, labor requires its fair share of representatives on boards of education. To have this, organized labor will enter politics on the local level—nominate and elect its friends to boards of education, or nominate and elect a mayor who will appoint labor members to the board in proportion to labor's membership in the community.³

This quotation from the CIO points up the issue very well. Here is a group of people who feel that they, as a group, should be represented on a board of education. This is contrary to our theory of government. If democracy works well, representatives of any kind are selected because they will be able to decide issues wisely, not because they are members of a particular group and will decide the way that group wants them to vote.

³ Congress of Industrial Organizations, *Labor and Education*, pp. 2-5.

A board of education should not reflect labor's point of view, nor management's point of view, nor the banker's point of view, nor the borrower's point of view. It should endeavor to represent the whole community in deciding what is best for boys and girls.

And yet, serious questions can be raised as to whether or not the people who are chosen, coming as they do from the successful, the well-to-do, and the better educated, actually take the entire community into account in making decisions about education. Each person is a part of the people with whom he associates, and their ideas become part of his ideas. Unconsciously, his decisions and his votes as a member of a board of education may be influenced by his life and his friends, even though he is chosen by the whole community.

How, then, is it possible to have boards of education which are chosen by the community as a whole, which do not represent any social class, and which will make decisions for the best interests of children?

PROBLEM THREE: *How Can the Best Persons Be Recruited, Trained, and Selected to Enter the Teaching Profession?*

Most studies of the people who enter the profession of teaching reveal that they come from middle-class homes, that their parents have better than average intelligence, that they hold middle-class values, that they plan to teach as a pleasant way of filling an interim before marriage, and that they have not shown more than average success in high school and in college, when success is measured by participation in student government and student activities as well as by scholastic achievement. The largest percentage are women.

In some fields of teaching, notably home economics, the teacher remains in the profession for a very short period of time. Even in fields where the average tenure of office is relatively long, a high proportion of the teachers remain for very short terms of years.

In the university, students who enter the teacher-training curriculum have often tried something else first and have found that they did not like it or could not do it. This is a carryover from high-school days. There has been little effort in high schools to present teaching as a desirable vocational choice. In some studies it has been found that less than 4 per cent of high-school students intended to enter teaching. Not only is

there a tendency for those to transfer to teacher-training curriculums who were unsuccessful in other programs, but there is some evidence that the choice of a teachers' college or normal school is made because the institution is near home, or because the student does not feel that he can make good in another college or university.

There have been no definitive studies of the reasons why the best students do not go into teaching. Some of the reasons advanced are obvious; the low rate of pay is mentioned frequently. The unattractiveness of teachers under whom the student has worked is also mentioned. Some believe that the status of the teacher in the community, particularly the restrictions placed upon what teachers can do, has substantial influence. Other reasons given are the absence of men and so the relative difficulty of meeting a satisfactory husband, the difficulty of the work, the effect upon the personality of being alone with children for long periods, and the effects of autocratic administration.

Actually, the studies that have been made have, for the most part, only scratched the surface. Far too many of them have been based on information collected in a very unscientific manner. All that can be said with sureness is that students in the secondary schools who show greatest promise of leadership, who have greatest intellectual ability, and who are most attractive personally do not enter teaching in proportion to their number. To some extent the old canard, "Those who can, do; those who can't, teach," has an element of truth in it.

But there is no other profession which can and does have such a profound influence upon the character of the people and consequently upon the destiny of the nation as does teaching. The task of molding the young so that they will seek to preserve and improve our democratic heritage is of sufficient importance and complexity to challenge the mind and spirit of the most able person. Why does it not do so? Why have high schools been able to interest only a few of their able students in teaching? Why have teachers' colleges and normal schools drawn fewer able students than have other colleges and universities? Why have teacher-training curriculums in colleges and universities drawn fewer able students than have other curriculums? These questions must be answered so that improvements can be made in the recruitment and selection of teachers if education is to improve.

PROBLEM FOUR: *What Should Be the Relation of Public Education to Other Agencies, Either Public or Private, Concerned with the Welfare of the People?*

It is very difficult to state that one activity is educational but another is not, for man may learn from whatever he does. Certainly he learns if he reads. Does this mean that the public library is an educational agency? He may also learn from attendance at a public forum at which important issues are discussed by persons who have studied them thoroughly. Does this mean that forums are educational agencies? And, of course, he learns when he attends a meeting of the civilian defense unit in his block. Does this mean that this is also an educational agency?

Even when the learning of children, rather than that of adults, is considered, it is not easy to define what an educational agency is. In most school districts the public health nurse is an important person in the life of the child in school. She may look through his hair for nits, look in his mouth for dental cavities, look inside his shirt for signs of rash, and inspect him in other intimate ways. She is present when the physician and the dentist examine him more thoroughly, or treat him. She visits his home when contagious disease is suspected. She may give talks in the classroom and to parents. Is the public health nurse an educator?

Other examples can be given at length, but mentioning them is enough to illustrate the problem. Is a police officer an educator when he is in charge of traffic safety, organizing safety patrols, or teaching students to cross the streets safely? What about the fire department, which is concerned with the overcrowding of all public buildings, including schools, and which wishes all students to know about all kinds of fire hazards? Or the social service worker, the Red Cross Nurse, the probation officer, and a host of other similar persons? Do they serve educational functions?

Then look at the other side of the coin. If the school provides a balanced meal for students, or dental treatment, or immunization against disease, or transportation to and from school, or work experience, are these educational programs?

It is easy to answer all of these questions with "Yes" and to claim that the school should control all educational activities. And many of the advocates of the community school do make such claims. But it is not easy to develop a system of organization that would do this; and it is far

more difficult to get public support for such an organization, even when it has been developed on paper. As a matter of fact, there is no good answer, and certainly no universally accepted answer, to the problems of relationship that have been raised here. Education is as broad as life, according to some educators—and as narrow as the Three R's, according to others, with segments of the general public agreeing with each professional group. The bulk of the profession, like the bulk of the people, is spread between these two poles. As a consequence, there can be no general agreement upon what is the province of the school and what is appropriate for other agencies. In the absence of such agreement, the problems of relationship become numerous and remain unsolved.

PROBLEM FIVE: *Should Important School Officials, Such as County Superintendents and Chief State School Officers, Be Elected by the People or Chosen by a Board of Education?*

This problem has already been solved in theory. Every theoretical study of the question comes up with substantially the same answer. The best way to secure desirable, trained, professional leadership is to have the people elect a board of education with the power to select a professional officer. This has been the pattern that has given public education its best leadership at the local level. It has also developed the best leadership at the state and county levels wherever it has been tried. But the theoretical answer does not prevail very rapidly in practice. Since the first county superintendent of schools was chosen in 1829, about half of the states have provided for his election by popular vote. In thirty states the chief state school officer is elected by the people, in eleven he is chosen by a state board of education, while in the remaining seven he is appointed by the governor. Why is it that the answer which is best in theory, and which has been found to be best in practice, does not come to be universally followed?

PROBLEM SIX: *What Kind of Local-State-Federal Relations Will Result in the Best Educational Program?*

It is generally accepted by students of education that the best educational planning is done by people who are close to the schools. Local initiative, with considerable local freedom to try out new ideas, is the

most fertile source of improvement. But local initiative cannot flourish unless there is sufficient wealth to underwrite the operation of the ideas it develops. The people of the community, under professional leadership, may possess unusual vision of the power of education. They may dream great dreams for their children. But vision and dreams remain unreal unless money brings them into being.

It is generally agreed by educators that money should come from both state and federal sources. These governmental agencies have broad powers of taxation and can distribute the cost of education among all people on an equitable basis. Equalization has been accepted as general practice in the states, and has been provided for in most bills that have been presented to the Congress.

Agreement does not extend much beyond these two items. There are some who say that putting money into school systems, without expecting them to meet standards, will eventually make them better. They argue that the vision and dreams of the people will eventually exceed any standard that might be imposed from without. They claim that money is like fertilizer put into the soil, and that good schools will always flourish where it is present in sufficient quantities. Others claim that putting money into small districts that employ poorly trained teachers under little or no professional leadership will only insure the perpetuation of the inefficient school. This group of students advocates the application of minimum standards as a requirement for participation in state or federal financial assistance.

There is further division among educators about the appropriate role of state and federal educational officers. Some believe that at least the state officers should have power to enforce their decisions about good education upon local districts. Some argue that this power should be limited to a very few areas, notably the size of the district, the qualifications of teachers, and the meeting of statutory requirements. Others would give them broad powers that would be interpreted by administrative regulations. The argument, in some respects, is that of whether there should be a government of laws or of men. And this issue has not yet been decided in any area of political science.

There is as yet no good answer as to the most appropriate state-federal-local relations.

PROBLEM SEVEN: *How Can Educational Systems Be Required to Meet Standards Without at the Same Time Becoming Static? Or, Stated Differently, How Can Minimum Standards Be Prevented from Becoming Maximum Standards?*

Standards for education are established by agencies external to the local school district. The agency may be the state, which establishes criteria that must be met if the district is to receive full reimbursement. It may be the federal government, which establishes standards that must be met if the local district is to be reimbursed for vocational education. It may be an accrediting agency, which certifies that the graduates of the high school may enter college if standards are met. It may be a national agency, such as The Coöperative Study of Regional Accrediting Agencies, which publishes norms for schools which, when met, mean that the school can claim a certain position on a predetermined scale.

In every instance there is some reward—financial, accreditation, or prestige—held out as an incentive for meeting the standard. There are almost no similar rewards held out for exceeding the standards. Meeting them, in common parlance, pays off. Being better than the standard does not pay off, or at least does not appear to pay off.

It is the unusual administrator who can persuade a community to provide financial support for a program better than the state, or the North Central Association, or the Coöperative Standards requires. And there is a very good reason for this. In the minds of most citizens, meeting these requirements means that the school is good. It is approved by the state. It is accredited by North Central. It stands high on the thermometers of the Coöperative Study. What more could any community ask?

Yet schools that meet these standards are not very good. As Alfred Simpson of Harvard University has said so many times, "The greatest single characteristic of public education in the United States is the lowness of its level of quality when measured in terms of what it might become."

This statement has much factual data to support it. Some years ago the original schools in the Metropolitan School Study Council, in the first year of its operation, applied the Mort-Cornell Scale for the appraisal of a school system to each other by a system of mutual visitations. Practically all of the schools were between the 95th and 100th percentile. It appeared that they were all good. Yet when a new and further refined scale was

invented, it was discovered that the differences among these schools were tremendous. Instead of all being equally good, some were markedly superior to others. The differences between the best of these schools and a school outside of this group which just managed to meet the requirements of the state or of an accrediting agency was so great that there was little resemblance between them. They were doing very little in common. And even the best of these schools could become better.

The range in quality between a school that meets standards, and one already doing the best the people who lead and support it can conceive, is very great. Yet many schools are satisfied with simply meeting established standards. How can they be given the impetus that will carry them forward until all will be close to the best as measured in terms of what each might become?

PROBLEM EIGHT: *How Can Public Education Be Close to the People and Yet Not Be Subject to the Desires of Pressure Groups Not Truly Representative of the People?*

Increasing complexity of community life has tended to separate the people from the boards and officials whom they select to govern them. While the tendency is not yet sufficient to cause much difficulty in smaller communities, it is of significant importance in large ones. And at the level of the state or nation it is extremely difficult for the ordinary citizen to have much influence on shaping policy. Educational administrators have been aware of this growing problem and have endeavored to find devices that will extend and continue the influence of the ordinary citizens rather than reduce and eliminate it. Advisory committees, opinion polls, newsletters, community conferences, business and education days, labor and education days, and the like, have been used from time to time.

While this movement has been proceeding in educational circles, the people have also sought means of making their influence felt. Men and women with like ideas have joined together in organizations for the express purpose of preserving and extending a particular set of values. Often these values are not too clearly defined but are expressed in slogans, catchwords, and generalities. "Free Enterprise," "Fundamental Americanism," "Ham and Eggs on Thursday," "Every Man a King," and "Back to the Three R's" have been the rallying cries of various groups.

Almost every organization, whatever its main purpose, has some program that it wishes the schools to follow. Examples of these are given in Chapter 6. Each uses, to the best of its ability, channels of communication and influence that will secure desired legislation either by local boards of education or by state and national bodies. Each sends its publications to people who influence educational policy. Each sends spokesmen to meetings of boards of education when specific issues of interest are under consideration.

The eagerness of educators to keep the schools close to the people, to have all of the people determine the ends of education, to secure representative lay advice and opinion, and to increase the effectiveness of the schools as instruments of public policy has made them unusually susceptible to the activities of pressure groups. Frequently the people who make the greatest outcry, or who present arguments most persistently, or whose minds are closed to all ideas except those of the organization they represent, are successful in foisting their programs upon the schools—and often to the detriment of the students. Yet the ideas of organized groups should be heard and given due weight, for they are important and they may be right. The difficulty lies in determining when such groups are truly representative of the people and when they represent only special interests. How can the school secure and use the opinions and ideas of the people and not be captured by special interest groups?

PROBLEM NINE: *How Can Administrative Technics Be Improved So That There Will Be Ways of Sharing the Responsibility for Action Whenever the Authority to Take Action Is Shared?*

The recent trend in educational administration is toward more and more democracy. This is wholly praiseworthy. But the full meaning of democracy has not yet been realized in most of the proposals that have been tried.

In general, democratizing administration follows the principles laid down in Chapters 22 and 23. These principles, and the procedures based upon them, are intended to promote the sharing of authority. Councils are set up to develop curriculums. The board of education establishes a grievance procedure that includes the use of teacher committees. There is an administrative planning council in which all types of employees are represented. Each of these is a device by which the authority of the board of

education, delegated by it to the superintendent of schools, is shared further with the members of the staff.

But there have been no similar techniques developed for sharing in responsibility. If a proposal of the staff salary committee is adopted and does not work, there is no way for the board to hold the committee responsible for the failure. The administrator is held responsible. If there is a procedure for placing teachers on tenure which involves the use of peer judgments, there is no way of holding the judging committee responsible if a teacher placed on tenure does not make good. So it goes through all of the areas in which current administrative practice encourages participation because it makes for democracy in education.

Democracy in its full meaning involves sharing responsibility whenever authority is shared. If a person is given authority to act for a board, or a committee is given authority to act for a board, there should be some way for it to share in the responsibility for success and for failure. But no devices for doing so have as yet been invented. They have not been considered in many school systems, partly because the idea of sharing responsibility is not as welcome as the idea of sharing authority and partly because people still feel that the administrator is paid more in order to "take the rap" when things go wrong.

Present conditions must be improved if the democratic process in administration is to improve. Many administrators sincerely wish to be democratic, but are unwilling to share authority and at the same time bear the burden of all the responsibility. They fear that if things go wrong they will be the only ones to whom blame may be attached. And their fears are probably justified. This is an essential problem in the improvement of democratic practice in administration. How can devices and principles be found that will enable responsibility and authority to be coupled whenever each is shared?

Suggested Reading

Problem 1

M. R. Sumption and H. D. Beem, *A Guide to School Reorganization in Illinois*. This pamphlet was prepared to assist county survey committees in their task of recommending better organization of school districts in Illinois.

It presents principles and evidence which can be used in determining the appropriate size of school districts.

Howard A. Dawson, *Satisfactory Local School Units*. This bulletin shows how the size of the school district is a function of the curriculum if public funds for the improvement of education are to be spent wisely.

Problem 2

George S. Counts, *The Social Composition of Boards of Education*. This study deals with the social status of 6,390 school board members. It shows that boards of education are not representative cross-sections of the communities they serve.

Problem 3

American Council on Education, Commission on Teacher Education, *Teachers for Our Times*. This report describes the American teacher in terms of sex, age, racial type, background, personal qualities, preparation, and similar pertinent items. It relates the nature of our country to children and schools and goes on to describe the need of teachers for our times. It is a good statement of the needs of the pre-war world, much of which is still true today.

Problem 6

Charles A. Quattlebaum, *Federal Educational Activities and Educational Issues Before Congress*: See *Suggested Reading*, Chapter 5, page 143, for a note on this study.

A. D. Simpson and C. H. Woollatt, "Evolution of State-local Relationships in New York State," *New York State Education* (December, 1947). See page 144 for a note.

Problem 8

H. K. Beale, *Are American Teachers Free?* See Chapter 6, page 186.

W. O. Stanley, *Educational Policies and Citizens' Organizations in an Age of Confusion*. See Chapter 6, page 186.

The authors have been unable to locate good current references on the issues included under Problem 4, Problem 5, Problem 7, and Problem 9.

PART TWO

The Community Task of School Administration

In Part One the reader has been shown that schools have a unique part in American life, but that schools are not separate from American life. The organization and operation of American Schools are a responsibility of all the people. This second section of the book considers how that responsibility is met. Attention has already been called to the kinds of decisions people must make in maintaining effective schools. How are these decisions to be made? How are they to be carried out?

The individual citizen, when confronted by his tremendous and personal responsibility for education, is likely to feel most inadequate for the tasks involved. Such a feeling can be helpful or disastrous. It is helpful as motivation for sharing that responsibility with others who also bear it. It is helpful in impelling citizens to seek specialized personnel who will carry on much of the actual work of operating the schools—always, however, under the general direction of the whole citizenry. But this feeling of inadequacy is disastrous when it becomes an excuse for escaping responsibility. Such escape can be accomplished only by shifting the responsibility to those employed to bear it or by abandoning it to those who seek such responsibility for personal or political advantage.

The abdication of such responsibility tends to augment the centralization of control. As more and more control is held by the central group,

decisions are reached and imposed with increasing rapidity. This speeding up of the process of government under centralized control sets up a centrifugal force which throws ever further from the center of authority those who loosened hold on their personal responsibility. As such individuals lose contact with those in control, they also lose influence over them, and a totalitarian efficiency is left at the center. This central authority then either loses support as the individual citizens lose interest and influence, or forces itself upon the individuals, moving them as it would move dead weight. It eventually fails through lack of support or through growing resistance, or because it stops on dead-center, having lost all the potential social drive derived from differences among the people.

The individual citizen, lay or professional, must use his feeling of inadequacy as motivation for sharing and for professionalization. He must bear his full share of responsibility and must keep himself related to the others who are also responsible.

Part Two of this book takes up the educational problems that American people meet most directly at the level of the local community. These problems are discussed as responsibilities of the citizens of local communities. The community faces up to these responsibilities both formally and informally. It meets them informally through loyal and persistent concern in countless ways. It meets them formally through meetings and elections, through boards, and through professional employees.

In the chapters of Part Two the reader is asked to consider the process of making and carrying out decisions. How is a decision reached as to who is to be educated, and, when reached, how is such a decision carried out? How is the educational program planned? How are planned changes in the program accomplished? Who shall comprise the professional staff of the school, and how are such employees to be selected and maintained? Where is school to be held, and how are the pupils to get there? What kind of space and equipment and supplies are to be provided? How is the cost of the program to be met? How can a community determine whether its plans have been carried out? How can it determine whether the plans carried out have accomplished the purposes for which they were undertaken? As people become aware of these and similar questions, they develop increased skill in sharing responsibility and in using the professional specialist. They learn the procedures of democratic interaction.

Decision-Making and Execution

CHAPTER 8

School administration is the making and carrying out of decisions about schools. School administration is a responsibility of the people of local communities and of the state. It is accomplished in part through direct action of citizens themselves or the action of representative bodies, and in part through the services of professional educators employed by the people. The determination of what is wanted in education and from education is a most important responsibility of the whole citizenry. How to attain what is agreed upon is generally considered the basic responsibility of the professional educator. When we know what we want schools to do for American people and American life, we depend upon the professional educators to work out specifically the kinds of district and grade organizations, teachers, buildings, books, supplies, schedules, activities, special services, records, and the like, which will make possible the accomplishment of the purposes.

Conditions under Which Decisions Are Made

The division of primary responsibility into concern over ends and over means does not separate into two camps the policy-makers and the chore boys employed to carry out policy when it is determined. In fact, it cannot do so, because the professional educators are also citizens. As citizens they participate in policy decisions and in the election of representatives who

make policy decisions. Their specialization in education and their devotion to it impel them to be particularly interested and active community participants in any decision-making process concerned with education. In the other areas of community life this is equally true for those specialized in the other vocations. Those who have specialized in agriculture, business, finance, industry, labor, health and sanitation, or other areas, become alert and active as citizens when the decisions to be made touch closely the area of their professionalization.

Professional Influence on Decision-Making

The professional educators, like other professionals, have a system of ethics. They have been trained in a more or less systematic manner. They belong to professional organizations that have aims and purposes for education. In the professional ethics, the professional training, and the operations of professional organizations the specialists acquire attitudes, behaviors, and understanding which significantly influence the kinds of situations they deem important and their conception of the appropriate process for decision-making.

Because the life work of the professional educator is education, his opinion and judgment on educational matters bear more prestige than do those of the lay individual. As one responsibility of his employment he is the professional adviser to the board of education—a body representative of the citizens—and is generally perceived by the public in this capacity. For these reasons he is frequently utilized as a professional adviser both formally and informally. As a professional adviser he has great influence upon the selection of those problems and situations that will be brought into the decision-making process. As adviser he is a focal person in the selection of areas for study as well as in influencing development of the decision process itself.

Not only is the professional a decider as a citizen and an adviser of the deciders; he is also a doer for the deciders. Since he is in a key communications position, he is frequently the action agent who receives the items for decision and injects them into the decision-making process. He is the individual who commonly serves the deciders through collecting data, making analyses, arranging meetings, and controlling the records of deliberations. He is primarily responsible as a professional for carrying out the decisions that are reached.

At any one of these points the professional educator has great influence on the ultimate decision. His professionalization qualifies him as competent to do the technical work involved. His professional ethics impose upon him the responsibility of using his unique position for service to society. The manner in which he carries out the decisions reached may have an effect not anticipated by the deciding group; thus it may really produce a change of decision in operation. The manner in which he carries out decisions may provide the basis for raising new issues for decision or for re-opening previous questions. His professional performance is subject to continuous review by citizens directly and through representative bodies. As school operation produces further occasion for decision-making, he continues to participate as a citizen, as a professional adviser, and as one who executes decisions that are reached.

In reading the two following sections it is important to bear in mind that the professional educators are also people. As people they are confronted with the institutional structure of the school. As people they are involved in social relations that influence the decision-making process. All that will be said about the social setting and the institutional structure applies not only to the whole of community life; it applies as directly to the life within the circle of the professionals.

The Social Setting in Which Decision-Making Takes Place

In an examination of the process by which a social institution makes decisions we must give attention to the social setting in which the institution exists, the interplay of forces between the institution and society, and the way in which this interplay of forces affects the decision-making process itself. Part One has been devoted to a discussion of the school in its social setting. The reader is referred again to the treatment of the interrelations of the school with governmental agencies at various levels, with all aspects of the local community, and with various organizations. The complex of these factors may determine whether or not it is even possible to raise certain issues with the prospect that they will receive any fair consideration. The universals held within a given community may be so entrenched that the raising of issues relative to any of them would be met with indifference, if not with strong opposition. The value system underlying the choices of people in the community will influence the decision made about these issues. Many of the values people hold are neither

systematized not reasoned; nevertheless, they bear upon the choices of people.

Although the institutional structure about to be described has been established to provide orderly procedure for reaching a reasoned decision, it cannot be said to represent completely the way in which decisions are really made. People do not lay aside their loyalties and their prejudices while they reason out the decision to be made. To the extent that individuals are able to systematize their values and to understand their bearing on the issue at hand, some control is placed upon the influence of such loyalties and prejudices. But many of the loyalties and prejudices people hold are deep-seated, and rationalization is difficult if not impossible with respect to such forceful sentiment. As T. V. Smith indicates, "Men who are equally honest and equally intelligent do not agree on what's to be done in the name of either honesty or intelligence".¹ The reason for including both the discussion of the professional influence and of the social setting in which decisions are made is to have the reader fully alerted to the ever-present force of influences other than reason alone.²

The conflicts in loyalties and prejudices that come to bear on a particular problem may be insoluble within reasonable limits of time and effort, but they are resolved for the time being through political decision. The nature of this difficulty is described by T. V. Smith:

The reason I can't solve most of my problems is a very simple one! It is the fact that these problems that worry me the most aren't restricted to me in any sense of the term. Before I am underway on their solution, I discover that they are problems that involve other people's attitudes, states of minds, or emotions almost altogether out of my power. When a problem that is your problem turns out also to involve the attitudes of other people, then you no longer have a problem; you have a predicament on your hands. You have to study new ways of approaching it if you are going to turn it in the direction of expanding human freedom.³

It has been commonly proposed that in democratic society the way to resolve conflicts is by expanding the area of agreement. However, it has

¹ T. V. Smith, "The Problem of Freedom in These Times," An address printed in *Education For Freedom: What Are We Doing?* Charles M. Allen and J. Lloyd Trump, editors (University of Illinois Press, 1950), p. 13.

² An able illustrative treatment of the influences affecting political decision is presented by Samuel Lubell, "Who Votes Isolationist and Why," *Harpers Magazine*, Vol. 202, No. 1211 (April, 1951), pp. 29-36.

³ T. V. Smith, *Op. cit.*, pp. 11-12. Used by permission of the University of Illinois Press.

also been pointed out that such a resolution is dependent upon the degree to which the people involved are willing to shift positions on beliefs they hold as absolutes but which are in conflict. As indicated above, these beliefs, and biases, loyalties, prejudices may be rationalized, systematized, and reorganized, though not readily. The degree of resistance to yielding any ground with respect to sentiment or faith differs from person to person; yet most of us have some tenets of faith or attitudes or sentiments on which we are unwilling to yield.

Under these circumstances any final solution of a conflict would represent an abandonment of individual absolutes on the part of some if not all of those involved in the decision. With our American emphasis on the human dignity and value of each individual, we have been unwilling to impose conformity and have sought to preserve the freedom of each individual to reach and hold his own views. Such freedom is possible only in a situation in which political decision is one of the acceptable means of resolution of conflict. Political decision involves finding a basis for action, best for all and at least tolerable for each, on which agreement can be reached. In such an agreement some may modify their biases, and some may lay aside their sentiments with respect to the particular activity involved or for the particular period of time involved; but this is different from giving them up altogether. Each has the expectation of opportunity, in subsequent decision-making situations, for further exercise of sentiment and for personal re-examination of personal values. This may represent social extension or restriction of individual opinion and bias. For the individual it may produce either reinforcement or modification of faiths and sentiments. The shifting balance of powers of our political system makes it possible to reach common decisions for action and still retain a high degree of individual independence of beliefs, loyalties, prejudices, opinions.

In no community do the feelings of each individual bear equal weight. Another social phenomenon to be recognized, then, is the "power figure." In every community there are people of influence. Some of them have general influence over whatever following they possess. Others have influence with respect to certain areas of life. Sociometric studies provide some basis for examining this phenomenon, and the social psychologists are beginning to approach some explanation of the bases for such influence. The power figures attain and hold influence for a variety of reasons that cannot all be included under the label of forceful personality.

Power may be derived from family tradition, from economic position, from organizational position. It may reside in the person of a labor leader, a social worker, a clergyman, a leading business or professional man, a successful farmer, an owner of property, an editor. It may result from the number of people the individual knows and the frequency and nature of his interaction with them. Such informal patterns of influence exist and are very much a part of the social setting in which decisions are made.

Without such persons of influence it would be virtually impossible to reach decisions. With equal individual biases in conflict on any given issue, the resultant is inaction unless someone is in position to influence a shift in the conflicting biases. Persons of influence serve such a purpose. They serve a further purpose: People involved in situations requiring decisions may be so numerous and their personal sentiments so varied that it would be impossible to bring them all to bear on any decision except as they are able to identify themselves with the influential persons whose views are effective and are most nearly acceptable to them. Even the numbers of people in unorganized groups must find their spokesman.

The informal structure of the community, providing profuse interaction or little interaction among citizens and groups and characterized by understanding or misunderstanding—by coordination or competition—will exert a direct influence on the number of educational issues that can be up for decision at any given time. Where the power figures representing dominant influence in the community are in agreement or where the universals held by the community are many, it will be difficult to raise issue in conflict with those universals or with the biases of the power figures; but it will be easy to reach decisions in harmony with them. In such a setting one might reasonably expect issues in accord with community values to be carried to the institutional structure for decision-making. In communities where there is a high proportion of alternatives among values, power figures, and the like, it can be expected that a wide variety of issues will arise; and they will more likely be carried to the institutional structure through external pressures. To the extent that each alternative represents an absolute to those who hold it, there is also more chance of conflict.

Institutional Structure for Decision-Making

The selection of situations in which decisions will be made and the procedures by which they will be made are affected by the nature of the social institution itself. The public school is (a) based on the authority

of the whole people in the state who (*b*) delegate authority to the legislature who (*c*) delegate authority specifically to local boards of education chosen freely by the people in the local school district; these boards (*d*) select professional employees who (*e*) are responsible directly for the educational program. Society's interest in each individual pupil is thus brought into operation through the classroom teacher, through the building principal, through the central administrative staff, through the board of education, through the state legislature, from the people of the state. This is the legal structure of the public school.

The structure may be considered an inverted triangle with respect to each individual pupil, with broader and higher authority represented at each step from the pupil through to the citizenry of the state. Actually, a complexity of overlapping triangles exists with individual pupils at the sharp point of each. In this connection the reader will recall from the general introduction the conception of the school as the way in which society does something about its concern for each individual pupil.

There are certain choices which the pupil makes for himself. There are decisions and actions affecting pupils as individuals or pupils as a class for which the individual teacher is responsible. The building principal makes decisions and takes action with respect to individual pupils or groups of pupils and with respect to individual teachers or teachers as a group, within the attendance unit he serves. The central administrative staff has responsibility for individual pupils, groups of pupils, individual teachers, groups of teachers, individual principals, groups of principals. As we move to the base of the inverted triangle, we find through the respective levels that the people of the state have responsibility for individual pupils, for groups of pupils, for individual teachers, for groups of teachers, for individual principals, for groups of principals, for individual central staff members, for all school administrative staffs, for individual boards of education and for all school districts, for the problems of education confronting the state as a whole.

It is obvious that the people of the state, even through their representatives, rarely if ever make any decisions concerning specific individual pupils. Certainly they do not perform at this level the executive services of educating the individual pupil. Time is not available. Lines of communication are too extended. But it is also true that each decision and action with respect to any specific child's education is accomplished by authority of the people of the state, within the rules and regulations and policies established by them, and in accordance with the established

procedures for reaching decisions. As the level of decision and action moves from the pupil through to the people of the state, the kinds of decision and action become less directed to specific individual pupils. They are more general. They represent guides, restrictions, grants of authority, and means applying to the decision-making and execution for each level below. As a corollary, one notes that the influence of any specific individual and the personal factors peculiar to him have relatively less weight as the level of decision and action moves from the individual pupil up to that of the people of the state.

This legal structure markedly delimits the choice of problems and the action which may be taken with respect to them. No problem for decision can be considered *de novo*. It must be considered in terms of this legal structure which represents many decisions already made. Each situation must be considered in relation to all of the existing applicable decisions. Such applicable decisions may even be external to the state. No action can be taken contrary to the federal Constitution, although there is a procedure by which the federal Constitution itself can be changed. No decisions can be made contrary to existing federal law, although federal laws can be changed through a much less rigorous procedure than is the case with the federal constitution. No decision can be made contrary to or exceeding the powers granted by the state constitution, although there is a procedure for changing and adding to the state constitution. The decisions already made are also found in the laws of the state—concerning the state, local communities, and school districts; in court decisions and in the rulings of state officials; in the rules and regulations of local boards of education and in their recorded actions; in the decisions of local school administrators especially as formulated in writing and sent to persons within the school system. Each problem coming up for decision must be considered in relation to existing decisions on such matters, to existing decisions on related matters, to existing decisions granting authority or restricting it, to existing decisions about the way in which decisions are to be made.

Many times citizens in the local community wish to make decisions and to take actions which the local community has no legal power to do. If the action is urgent, the citizens of the community will become concerned with moving the decision process to a wider area in order to get state laws changed and the structure of the institution changed. Existing decisions represented by rules, procedures, and actions determined by the teacher

in a classroom are more specific and have a more direct effect upon the individual pupil than those of the other levels; they are also easier to change. As we move through the layers of legal structure to the federal Constitution, each tends to be less specific and to have less direct application to the individual pupil, but to be more difficult to change. This is another way of saying that the influence of any individual and the personal factors peculiar to him are relatively less forceful when the decision-making process is carried on in increasingly broader areas.

Educational decisions are made within a legal system of decisions already made and of procedures for making decisions. But that legal structure exists in a social setting which shapes the structure and which influences dominantly the kinds of situations considered and the nature of the decisions reached. The professional educator exerts significant influence in the decision-making process when it is concerned with school matters.

The Decision-Making Process

Getting Issues Raised for Decision

In our democratic system the responsibility for raising an issue rests with the person who perceives it. Such an issue may be the result of thinking beyond present practice to some improvement in educational procedure. Or the issue may arise as a result of dissatisfaction with some aspect of present practice. The professional staff members have a special and continuous responsibility in this respect. As students of education they should present proposals for improvement. These proposals may come as the result of their own direct invention. They may come as the professional staff members are alert to developments in education and are thus able to appropriate ideas and procedures for local consideration. In continuing professional concern for better understanding of learners and learning and for social analysis (to be discussed in Chapter 10) the staff is also in a position to identify the areas of ineffectiveness in the present system. The professional staff has a responsibility beyond that of the local citizenry for study of the local situation, but also an even greater obligation to relate the local community to broad movements of educational development in a changing world order.

Each citizen and each organized group also have the obligation to raise questions and suggestions for consideration. They may express dissatisfaction with existing situations without suggestions for change, or they may express suggestions which they believe will improve existing operations. Since citizens are not always familiar with the legal structure of the school system, the professional staff member to whom they may come has the obligation of hearing the suggestion or expression of dissatisfaction. This implies that the citizen may bring a matter for decision to the legal structure at any level. The staff member hearing the criticism or proposal must know enough about the structure to know at what level the consideration is appropriate, by what procedure it may be presented and considered, or what blocks its consideration and thus calls for abandoning the issue or changing the legal structure.

When the interests represented by the individual or group raising the issue are contrary to the existing decisions, to the mores, to the technical findings about education, a referral to another level of authority may represent buck-passing. If those who raise issues are passed from one level of authority to another and the final answer, after much time and effort, is adverse, they are likely to avoid such experiences in the future through shunning any further obligation to make suggestions or voice criticisms. Thus the professional staff member has a responsibility beyond hearing any complaint or suggestion. He must also help the issue-raiser determine what prospects he has for favorable hearing and action, with whom he should proceed, and how he should proceed. In this determination he is serving as a professional adviser.

As a professional adviser the staff member draws on his experience and information. He depends on his familiarity with the legal structure. He depends on his acquaintance with the local community and the social setting in which public education exists. He depends on his specialized knowledge of education. He is aware that his own perception of the situation may be idiosyncratic and is wise, therefore, to include in his counsel the qualification that he is speaking in accordance with the "way it looks to him."

No doubt the way in which the professional staff member perceives the individual or group confronting him also has influence upon his reaction. If he feels that the person is but a busybody stirring up dissension for the sake of dissension, he will not encourage recourse to another level of authority as frequently as he will if he feels the person is sincere and willing to be objective. But he also cautions himself against stereotyping

all issue-raisers as busybodies. He recognizes that even though many criticisms are unfounded and many suggestions are impractical, society is likely to lose the value of those that are well founded or practical unless we hear them all.

If the question raised or suggestion proposed is appropriate for consideration at the level at which it is raised, it is then accepted for processing in the way to be discussed below. If it is a matter on which a decision has already been reached or a matter beyond the powers of decision-making at the level at which it is raised, there are several alternatives. The issue-raiser may find the existing decision quite satisfactory to him. He may find that although the existing decision is unsatisfactory, it was reached through a fair and impartial consideration according to established procedures. Under such a circumstance he may decide that although the existing decision is not wholly acceptable to him, he would gain no different decision through a reconsideration since his complaint or suggestion in substantially the same form has already been fairly considered. He may find that he does not accept either the decision or the procedure by which it is reached, but decide that the effort necessary to secure further consideration is beyond him or is too much trouble for the values he seeks. He may reject the decision and decide that it is worth the effort to secure further consideration at whatever level is necessary and appropriate. In this event he will proceed to raise the issue again at the appropriate level in accordance with the procedures established within the structure. Or he may reject the decision but refuse to carry any request for further consideration to other levels of the legal structure of the schools, preferring instead to seek consideration elsewhere in the social setting in which the school exists. Under such circumstances he may be able to build up external pressures on the school system; conversely, he may find so little audience that he drops the matter.

Processing the Issues Accepted for Decision within the Institutional Structure

As indicated above, the individual or group having a complaint or having a suggested change may either present it to some level of the institutional structure in order to get a decision or bring social forces to bear upon the institution in order to get the change. In the latter choice the situation is settled, through some decision-making procedure external to

the school, in either a formal or informal manner. If such a decision is to result in a change in the schools, it must be presented to the institutional structure at the appropriate level for action. Sometimes it comes with such social force that change is effected with little, if any, of the procedure discussed below. In effect, it is a change imposed on the school. However, in the following discussion attention is directed to the processing of decisions within the institutional structure of the public school.

The individual or group considering the situation for decision will go through some or all of the various steps discussed below. The care with which this is done will be dependent upon the seriousness of the matter and upon the time available. Where the consideration is being given by a group instead of by an individual, the various steps may be delegated to special committees or to individuals for accomplishment. When the deciding group is a lay group, the initial accomplishment of many of these steps is charged to a professional educator employed by the group or advisory to the group. His training has provided him with the required tools of analysis, evaluation, and data collection.

Separating Purposes from Procedures. A variety of ways in which complaints and suggestions may come to the attention of the school system has been discussed. Initial statements may embody an expression of purposes to be served and may or may not include suggestions with respect to the means by which the goals are to be attained. The statement may represent only a proposed change in procedures or additional procedure, the purpose of which is either implied or obscure. The statement may express only resentment or distress with no ready indication of purpose nor suggestion of corrective procedure.

A first step in analysis should be that of determining the goal or purpose to be served by any decision on the issue. Unless this is done the decision may be made solely on the basis that the means proposed are convenient or inconvenient, inexpensive or too expensive, easily carried out or carried out with extreme difficulty. Such a decision may actually result in the adoption of a purpose in conflict with other purposes and values held by the school, or it may overlook the consideration of some purpose of importance to the school. Such a decision may sometimes result in adopting a procedure that is not the most effective for achieving the worthwhile purpose it was intended to serve. The soundest and most efficient procedure is to begin with a careful examination of the issue to identify

early what is wanted. The purposes to be served should be given first consideration, and the procedures to be followed may be determined subsequently so that the purpose is most effectively served.

Collecting Pertinent Information and Opinion. The second procedural step is the collection of pertinent information and opinion. The decision as to what information and opinion are pertinent will determine to some extent the kind of decision that can occur. The decision as to how many or how few data are adequate will also condition the nature of the decision. It is possible to reach a decision based on the first information available or upon the most accessible data. It is possible to seek data or opinions biased in favor of the searcher's prejudice. The professional staff member is trained in how to locate educational information and data. He is familiar with the various procedures and the various sources. For that reason he is most likely to investigate all promising sources with greatest efficiency.

He will consider what information and opinion are required on which to base fair and objective consideration of the issue. Through the literature available, through interviews, through opinion polling, through group discussion, through questionnaires, and similar means he will seek the opinion of those who have made special studies of the matter under consideration, of those who are in positions of responsibility with respect to the matter, and of those who will be affected by any decision to be reached. He may also seek reports on decisions made by corresponding individuals or groups with respect to comparable problem situations. Through inventory, census-taking, survey, testing, scoring, rating, and other means he will collect pertinent facts and figures. He will extract appropriate factual information from the literature dealing with the area under consideration.

Analysis of Information and Opinions Collected. A third step in processing an issue for decision is that of analyzing the data collected. They must be classified and arranged according to some reasonable system. The bearing of each section of data upon the issue must be determined as well as the bearing of each section on any other sections of data. The methods of logical reasoning must be applied in interpreting the meaning of the data. Ways of weighing conflicting data in terms of quantity, reliability, validity, and significance are used in the analysis of information and opinions. As in the collection of information and

opinions, it is also true in the analysis of information and opinions that the choice of method may determine to some extent the nature of the decision finally reached. The professional staff member is equipped with some statistical tests of significance and reliability, as well as the statistical means of analysis to determine central tendency, correlation, and relative effect of various factors. He has developed judgment on the basis of his training and experience in education. With his knowledge of the tools of analysis, his professional judgment, and his devotion to service to society, he is a responsible individual who can be expected to be most likely to provide a fair and dependable analysis.

Phrasing Alternative Choices. In each situation up for decision there will always be at least three alternatives: A proposal may be accepted; it may be rejected in favor of values held in preference to those proposed; it may be rejected in favor of further refinement. In many situations there will be several alternative choices any of which might be acceptable. Although the individual or group collecting pertinent data must have several hunches with respect to plausible decisions as a basis for knowing what to collect, in the process of analysis additional alternatives may be discovered through alertness. Therefore, the individual or group will be on guard against bias in favor of the initial hunches in order to provide a thorough examination of the situation up for consideration.

It is important, as a part of the fourth step, to phrase alternative choices which seem possible on the basis of the data collected and analyzed. Unless possible choices are stated, the individual may ponder the data or the group may discuss the analysis reported without ever coming to a decision. The statement of alternative choices implies that one choice will be finally made and thus increases the effectiveness of reflection or deliberation.

Predicting the Desirability of Each Alternative. A fifth step in the processing of issues raised is that of estimating the relative value of each of the alternative choices available. There are several bases on which this may be done, and the process may involve the use of any one or any combination of them. Some that may be suggested include the following:

Consideration of consistency of the alternative with values currently held and with procedures currently followed: Judgment will depend in part upon the extent to which it creates little disturbance to other values and procedures because it is consistent with or easily replaces existing

values or procedures, or the extent to which it may create numerous additional issues because it is in conflict with a substantial number of values currently held or procedures currently followed.

Consideration of urgency: How great is the need for a given choice? How great is the distress that will be relieved?

Consideration of the acceptability of the choice: In the long run a decision unaccepted by those to whom it applies has no force.

Consideration of effectiveness: Which of the alternatives will be within the limits of available time, staff, and funds and will yield the most satisfactory results? Such effectiveness will certainly be considered in terms of educational outcomes for pupils, staff morale, status or rating of the school, influence on school support. Attention will be given to the extent the choice represents economy through better utilization of time, facilities, and staff, or brings about a reduction in unit costs with no loss in quality.

The prediction of the desirability of each alternative represents setting up a tentative ranking of choices in the order of preference. At this point, again, the individual predicting the values has much opportunity to influence the ultimate decision. And as in the other instances, he attempts to serve fairly and objectively.

Making the Decision within the Institutional Structure

The process of making the decision is an act of judgment involving reflection or deliberation. In effect, it is a careful review of all of the foregoing steps. In this process the individual or the individual members of the group must satisfy themselves (1) that the situation presented for decision has been properly examined in terms of ends and means, (2) that the data collected are pertinent and adequate, (3) that the analysis is accurate and thorough, (4) that the alternative choices stated are those actually possible, and (5) that the ranking of these alternatives is sound. This represents an overview of the whole procedure which is different from the piece-by-piece procedure followed as each step was initially undertaken.

In reflection or deliberation some alternatives may be modified. It is possible that parts of alternative choices may be combined to produce a more acceptable choice different to some degree from any derived in the initial analysis. It is possible that in the process of reflection or deliberation new alternatives may develop, calling for further study, or of value

so obvious that they stand in preference to those originally developed.

The individual or group may feel satisfied to the extent of making a final decision. Such a decision remains until it is challenged through the whole procedure arising out of issues producing conflict with the decisions; but it is a decision accepted without plans for further organized review or study. On the other hand, the deciders may feel so insecure about any decision that a best choice is made on a tentative basis. In such an instance part of the decision is acceptance of a definite trial period after which the value of the decision will be subject to re-study for final affirmation or for change. Either kind of decision is tentative, in the long run. At the same time, however, a decision may be final for certain people since they come under its effect at a given time and may never again be affected by it.

The Execution of Decisions

A decision reached must also be made effective. In the field of public government we have experienced laws that were never really carried out because there was never any provision for carrying them out. Provision for appropriate implementation should be made as a part of any decision, or the decision should be followed by enabling acts to put it into effect. A decision without provision for action is little more than an article of faith, and faith without works is of little avail. As we determine what we believe and what we desire, it is necessary that we also determine what we are going to do about it and how we are going to get it done. This may involve stating a date when the decision is to be effective, designating clearly to whom or to what it applies, delegating definite responsibility for seeing that the application is made, and providing the funds or staff and equipment necessary for discharging the responsibility.

The initial decision may contain all of these elements insuring action. However, statements of decisions on complex matters may be concerned primarily with what is agreed upon as wanted and thus require one or more subsequent enabling decisions. Earlier in the chapter it was stated that the manner in which an action agent carried out a decision has some modifying effect upon the decision. In the same way, each enabling decision taken for the sake of implementing a policy decision represents a further modification and extension or restriction of the initial decision.

But there is more to the execution of decisions than the provision of

funds, time, personnel, space, and materiel so that authorized individuals or groups will find it possible to accomplish the purpose. Sometimes decisions that seemed good when made turn out to be not so good in operation. Sometimes those to whom responsibility is delegated fail to bear it. Sometimes the provisions of enabling decisions are not sufficient to make accomplishment possible. It is important that provision be made for evaluation.

Some provision for evaluation is made in the legal structure of the institution in charging specified positions with responsibility for supervision and requiring periodic reports on the condition and effectiveness of the school program. The official and unofficial exchange of information and opinions about the school which goes on continuously as a part of community life provides a second avenue of evaluation. A third factor affecting evaluation is a characteristic of the true professional—his devotion to improving his own practice as a professional and to the improvement of the profession as a whole. This stimulates self-evaluation. This encourages professional attention to the evaluation of education.

One of the necessary decisions about evaluation itself is by what standards the evaluation is to be made. Shall it be determined whether or not the goals of the original decision have been achieved, or should those goals be first re-examined to determine whether or not they are still valid? To what extent shall evaluation be directed to the results of the activity, and to what extent shall it be concerned with the techniques involved?

Evaluation may establish credit or blame for those responsible; but its true end is that of providing a basis for termination, maintenance, modification, or extension of the effectiveness of decisions being carried out. If we think of evaluation solely as a means of fixing credit or blame, we are more likely to judge results than procedures. If we consider evaluation as further decision-making involving subsequent execution, the goals are more likely to be revised, and we are likely to look at both results and procedures.

As in the case of basic responsibility for the initial decisions, the basic responsibility for evaluation rests with all the people. Informally by small groups or individuals and on a fragmentary basis evaluation is always under way. It is from such evaluation that the questions and issues arise. This leads to further decision-making and execution through the same procedure described in this chapter. Thus the public process of school administration is a never-ending process.

Suggested Reading

L. P. Bradford, "Involving Parents in School Problems," *Progressive Education* (May, 1949). One article of an entire issue devoted to the problems of building community participation. It deals with the particular difficulties of involving parents. The author uses a hypothetical case study to make his points very effective.

R. W. Holmstedt, *Community Participation in Educational Planning*. A short exposition is made of five types of community participation in educational planning found in Indiana. These range from advisory councils to parent-teacher planning of pupils' programs.

R. E. Larsen, "What Do Public Schools Need Most?" *Educational Leadership* (October, 1948). The author, president of Time-Life, Inc. and chairman of the National Citizens' Commission for the Public Schools, writes of the need for wider community participation in school affairs. He presents suggestions and examples.

R. Bruce Raup, Kenneth D. Benne, George Axtelle, and B. Othanel Smith, *The Improvement of Practical Intelligence*. The authors state that the central problem of education at every level is to develop the ability to make wise practical judgments both in selecting or supporting solutions to the problems of living in a democratic society and in personal life. A theory of the way practical intelligence can be developed and used is carefully presented. This volume deserves the attention of students of the process of making decisions.

V. M. Rogers, "Leadership Responsibility for School Costs; Community Coöperation in Financing Education," *Educational Leadership*, (February, 1949). A very brief account of how one midwestern city uses coöperative action in the community so that it understands and carries out its financial responsibilities for maintaining good schools.

J. Sternig, "Community Responsibility in Educational Planning," *Educational Outlook* (November, 1949). This article is an approach to the need for coöperative school planning based upon a sociological understanding of learning and schooling. The author closes with a list of ten specific activities in his community which illustrate his thesis.

Helen F. Storen, *Laymen Help Plan the Curriculum*. A brief but helpful guide to questions of participation which arise at the level of everyday decision-making.

E. H. Thorne, "Enlisting Community Support," *Education* (December, 1948). The author presents a straightforward argument for the need for enlisting public participation in school planning. He specifically avoids trying to lay down set formulas for operating.

United States Office of Education, *Compulsory Education Requirements*. This eleven-page circular is designed to answer inquiries concerning the legal requirements for school attendance. An understanding of them is necessary to educational planning.

Deciding Who Is to Be Educated

CHAPTER 9

This chapter takes up the important question of deciding how many children and adults are to be educated. In approaching this decision, certain basic considerations must be kept in mind: There are dangers to avoid and positive principles to implement.

Basic Considerations in Determining School Services

The cost of education tends to be greatest where the largest percentage of the population is in school. But the results of education are best under this same condition. So decisions about who shall be educated have a dual effect. As the community expands the number of persons whom the school serves, it increases the total cost and also improves the results. It is obvious that the upper limit of deciding who shall be educated is reached when everyone in a community is in school. No school system has as yet begun to approach this limit. On the basis of present experience it is impossible to state where, below this limit, increasing cost continues and improvement in results tends to cease. In fact, it is impossible to state with finality that there is such a point. But decisions about who should be educated must be made with this problem in mind. Unless the increase in cost that comes with increase in numbers results in improvement, then public funds will not be spent prudently.

A second major caution should be kept in mind when deciding who is to be educated. The public schools are not the only educational agency

in the community. Extending their services to new age groups should be done only when it is clear that no other agency can and will reach all of the people who wish to be served. The public schools should supplement, not compete with, other educational agencies that serve the whole community. Failure to do this will not only result in imprudent use of public funds but will tend to weaken those other agencies in the community that do much to keep the whole people strong.

A third danger is that of increasing school services at the expense of other existing community services. It is unwise to add to the educational services of the public schools without adding, to the school budget, money for the cost of the new services. To do otherwise results in taking funds from one enterprise to underwrite another. If the latter is sound and desirable, then it should be able to draw tax support. If it cannot, then it should not be established at the expense of other functions.

But there are positive principles to keep in mind as well. As society becomes more complex and more urbanized, there is need for new services from the school. The problems of adults cannot be solved on the basis of information they acquired when they were in the elementary and secondary schools. No pertinent information about atomic energy, Russian communism, or national health insurance could have been given them then, for it was not available; nor were the problems recognized as emergent issues. So the adults must get their information when they need it. And the best way to do this is through further education.

Similarly the problem of vocational education can never be solved during the high-school years. Technological change calls forth new machines and produces new materials. Workers who are to learn to use these must have training, and this can best be given in a special school equipped to do the job.

A third by-product of industrialized society is the shortening of the working week. This allows more people to have more time to enjoy life. Enjoyment can be narrowed to sitting in a beer parlor, watching wrestlers on television, or going to the movies. These are respectable parts of leisure-time activity, but they are only parts. People enjoy themselves most when what they do has variety; some things are stimulating and some are relaxing. Creating with clay or paint or words, singing, listening to music, reading, and other cultural activities which have held man's interest through the ages can become a part of his leisure if the schools help to make them so. And this means extending services to adults.

A fourth area in which there is need of school services is that of the very young child. Time was when families were large and neighbors knew each other well; when the village had empty lots in which children could play while growing up to school age; when few people knew what young children needed and fewer cared whether or not they received it. The old days had both good and bad in them. Today the good of playing with brothers and sisters in the empty lot is gone in most urban areas. The bad of improper food habits, lack of good health, and emotional stress is still far too common. In the good community the school extends its services to the very young to help them get the right start in life.

So there are cautions to bear in mind and there are challenges to be met. The wise educator remembers both. He remembers also that education is a function of the state, and that the district which employs him can do only what the state allows. Some decisions have been made for it. Some decisions it can make for itself. The educator's role is that of leading the people to make wise decisions within their area of authority, and of helping them to get more authority when they need it.

Decisions Made by the State

Compulsory Attendance Laws. Every state has a law or series of laws prescribing the ages during which a child must be in school. Usually these laws allow the child a choice of being either in school or at work during the last two years of the compulsory attendance period. In general, the age at which school attendance must begin is six. The upper limit in some states is eighteen; in a few, fourteen; in most it is sixteen. No state requires that all children attend the public schools. The Supreme Court held this to be unconstitutional in the Oregon case. Attendance at private or sectarian schools will meet the requirements of the law. Instruction at home by a parent or tutor will not usually meet the requirements, but some exceptions have been made by the courts.

Nearly every state recognizes that children with mental and physical handicaps cannot attend school and allows them to be exempted from the requirement under specified conditions. The few states that do not have such exemptions in the law allow them in practice. In general, any child "mentally incapable of doing the work of the school" or "not in proper physical or mental condition to attend school" is exempted.

Most states do not require school attendance beyond a certain grade,

even if the child is still within the compulsory school age. Phrases like "until he is eighteen years of age or shall have graduated from high school, whichever shall have occurred first" define the upper limit of the compulsory school age.

Kinds of Schools That Must Be Established. In addition to prescribing the age of compulsory school attendance the state usually requires that certain types of schools be established in specified kinds of school districts. The grammar school, now usually referred to as the elementary school, was the first such school required. This was followed later by the high school. In general, these two schools make up the system of public education. In some states, towns or townships of above a minimum size are required to maintain both elementary and high schools. In others, each school is maintained by a separate district.

As the compulsory school age was increased, some states required that continuation schools be established wherever enough children of school age were employed. These children are required to attend a few hours each week. This time is counted as part of the time of employment. In some states schools for apprentices are required wherever there are enough students under indenture to master craftsmen. In these schools the beginning worker learns the science, mathematics, and English directly related to his trade. He learns his skills on the job.

With the influx of people from Europe during the early part of the twentieth century there was need for schools in which they could learn to speak English and be taught the fundamentals of government and good citizenship. Some states required Americanization classes or schools in those communities where there were more than a legally fixed, minimum number of foreign-born persons.

Kinds of Schools That May Be Established. Many communities wish to maintain schools not required by the statutes of the state. In order to do this they must have authority granted by the legislature to spend taxes for these purposes. In most states, several different kinds of schools may be supported from taxes. Continuation schools, apprentice schools, and schools for the foreign-born are usually permitted, where they are not required.

Kindergartens are allowed in all states but one, but not always with full support. In a few states these may be in public school buildings but

are supported by tuition fees. In more states they may be supported by local funds, but receive no state aid. In slightly more than half of the states they may receive full support from both sources. Nursery schools for young children are permitted in some states by action of the legislature and in others by interpretation of the constitution or of existing statutes about the education of young children.

Both kindergartens and nursery schools are operated in most states by private agencies or by individuals. Elementary and secondary schools and other types of educational institutions are also operated by private agencies. In general, private schools are licensed by the state or by the local school district. In some states they are required to meet the standards of the public schools. In others they must employ teachers who have been certificated by the state.

The public junior or community college is specifically authorized by legislation in more than half of the states and exists in a few others because of interpretations of existing laws or of the constitution. These colleges were originally intended as terminal institutions, but many have taken on preparatory functions. In addition, they have become centers for adult education.

Adult education is not a kind of school, but a kind of program carried on by schools. It is permitted in every state, but its scope varies from purely vocational training to lectures on literature and to classes in the arts and crafts for persons seeking to improve their leisure-time activities. Here, as in all other instances where the state permits the operation of schools or programs that it does not require, the use of tax funds may be restricted to providing building space, or may include financial support from local and state funds or from a combination of fees and taxes. Occasionally, as at the famous Opportunity School in Denver, a separate institution for adult education is established.

Purposes for Which Public Funds May Be Spent. Many educational programs which might become schools by themselves are operated as parts of schools. Wherever the state permits public funds to be spent for an educational program, it usually allows the local district to choose the method of internal organization by which the program may be offered. So it is that elementary schools may, at times, be part of a system extending from grade one through high school. An elementary school may have either a kindergarten or a nursery school, or both. Junior or community colleges

may be part of a high school. Adult education, apprentice training, schools for the foreign-born, and continuation schools may be part of either elementary schools, high schools, or community colleges.

In addition to these functions, there are many educational programs required by statute, authorized by statute, or authorized by reasonable implication from statutes or the constitution. These are too numerous to mention in detail since they number in the hundreds when those of every state are considered. Such a list would begin with advertising and end with zoology. It would include the subjects offered in the schools, programs in special education for atypical children, visual aids, field trips, and the whole gamut of activities found in the schools of the nation.

It should be kept in mind that such a comprehensive list of activities would be a national list and would not apply to any given state. Field trips, for example, may be a legal use of public funds in one state, and illegal in an adjoining state. In the absence of a clear statement in the law there is only one sure way to discover whether an activity may be financed from taxes, and that is with the advice of counsel. Even then there may be reason to have some doubt unless the counsel can find that the courts of the state have decided pertinent cases in a favorable manner. Except for the central core of subject matter, which has been a part of the school through tradition for generations, and in the absence of permissive legislation, there is practically no activity that can be pointed to as a legal one for all public schools in all states. It is not wise to assume that a school district may do whatever seems to be for the best interest of the children in the schools. Its powers are limited and cannot be exceeded just because the proposed activity looks desirable.

Decisions Usually Made by the Local School District

While the state establishes the bounds of education, the local school district has freedom within these to make many choices that effectively determine the composition of the population who will be educated. These decisions fall into three general areas.

Age of Entering School. The state prescribes the compulsory school age, but the local district may, and usually does, admit children younger than the minimum age. If kindergartens or nursery schools are to be op-

erated, then the entering age for each must be stated in the rules and regulations of the school district. And these will be substantially below those stated in the compulsory school attendance law.

Kinds of Schools Provided. The local school district must decide which among the kinds of schools and the types of educational programs permitted by the state will be provided for the people. Will home teachers be provided for educating children too ill to come to school, or too crippled to be away from home? Will there be special education for the handicapped? Will there be kindergartens? Nursery schools? In short, each local district must answer this question: If all of the educational programs allowed by the state are not to be offered, which have the greatest merit for this community?

Action to Secure Needed Authorization to Offer Education. The growth of education has in large measure come about because people in local school districts have seen need for improvement. Many times they have found that the need could not be met because the local school board lacked the power to meet it. For example, adult education, vocational education, and education of the handicapped have become widespread because interested persons at the local level have pressed for authority to take action. Because of this pressure the legislatures in the various states have received petitions, listened to people at hearings, and acted to grant necessary powers.

Whenever a local school board finds that it does not have the power to carry on an activity that will meet a need, it must decide what to do next. If, in its deliberations, it concludes that the need must be met, it then requests the legislature to grant the power to meet it.

How the Local School District Decides Who Is to Be Educated

While the decisions that must be made locally fall into only three major categories, the process of making these decisions involves more than three types of persons. The decision is made by the board of education. But the board does not act in isolation. It has competent professional advice from its administrative leader. He in turn works closely with the professional and non-academic staff of the schools. Both the leader and the board seek to discover and use the ideas of the community. Deciding who is to be educated involves cooperative interaction among the members of the board,

the educational leader, the professional and non-academic staff of the schools, and the public. Suggestions for extending education to more people may arise from any of these sources.

The Role of the School Board. The essential role of the school board is that of establishing policy. To a very large extent its role in a particular situation, such as that of deciding what policy shall determine who shall be educated, does not differ in important elements from its role in establishing policy in any other area. It follows the general procedure presented in Chapter 4.

In the particular problem under consideration, the suggestion that the board state its policy in respect to who shall be educated at public expense might arise from a group of parents requesting that a kindergarten be established, a recommendation from the administrative leader that there be classes for adults, a suggestion from the teachers that education be extended through grades thirteen and fourteen, a request from a labor union that apprentices receive education in fields related to their trade, or from the school secretaries who wish to have classes in metal working as a hobby. Whatever the request may be, the wise procedure is to establish policy of the most inclusive kind so that future requests may be dealt with by the professional staff within the framework of precedent and existing regulations.

Broad policies can be established wisely only after broad consideration of many facts and proposals. The wise board of education requests the professional staff to examine particular requests and to suggest procedures and policies that may be desirable for the school as a whole. If the board does not make such a request, the wise administrator recommends that the matter be referred to him for study and a report which may lead to the development of policy.

Whenever such a report is to be received, the fact should be advertised widely, and the presentation of the report should be at a public meeting. People who are interested should be informed of the nature of the meeting well in advance. They should have the opportunity to prepare in advance what they may wish to present for the consideration of the board. Full opportunity to bring their views to the attention of the board should be given to all interested persons. The board should receive all information and opinion before it comes to a decision and establishes policy.

The Role of the Professional Administrator. The superintendent of schools has the responsibility for making sure that policy is established on as broad a base as possible. His professional training enables him to see the implications of specific requests. If a labor union asks the board of education to establish apprentice training classes, the superintendent should be aware of the need for a statement of policy that covers all types of situations in which education might be extended to more people. He should advise the board to examine all of the pertinent facts and to make the decision about apprentice training in such terms that it will solve as many other problems as possible.

This does not mean that the decision on the request for apprentice classes should be postponed until matters of broad policy are settled. Any petitioner is entitled to a ready and complete answer so that he may determine the nature of the recourse he will take in the event he is dissatisfied. It does mean that there should be enough exploration of the broader problem so that the superintendent is sure that his proposal for the apprentice program will be consistent with broader policy that might be established.

When the administrative leader is studying the problem of who should be educated, he will need advice and information from many persons. He should use the existing channels of communication among the personnel in the school so that all ideas may be brought together and considered by whatever body represents his staff. He should endeavor to secure information and advice from interested organizations in the community. He should examine reference material to find what research has disclosed to be true. He should secure the advice of the counsel of the school district upon all matters of law. He should keep in mind the high purposes of education and the way in which it can improve the democratic way of life. He should endeavor to extend education to as many persons as possible, encouraging the board to do so by providing new money for new programs.

If the essential problem is a legal one and the advice of the attorney for the board should be secured, a request to him might be couched in the following terms:

Hon. John Doe, Esq.

Counsel to the School Board, District 222

The question of who may be educated has been referred to me for study in order that I may recommend policy to the board. Before doing

this I wish to be sure that decisions with respect to each group of prospects would have a sound basis in law. As you know, some persons must be educated, and some educational programs must be established. There are also other programs which may be established, either because there is specific authority for them in the statutes or because authority may be reasonably implied from existing statutes, decisions of the courts, rulings of the attorney general, or provisions of the constitution.

Some types of educational programs may be offered in public buildings by the school district, with the costs of supplies, instruction, and occasionally of overhead, borne by fees from the students. Some programs may be offered with full support from the tax revenue of the school district. Some may not be offered under either condition.

Specifically, the board has been requested to provide a program for training apprentices in the science, mathematics, and English related to their trade. Will you please inform me of the conditions under which this may be done?

In addition, will you please inform me of the conditions under which the school district may offer the following educational programs:

Americanization	Continuation schools
Education of the foreign born	Kindergarten
Adult education	Nursery schools
Junior or community college	Home teaching for ill or crippled

It would be most helpful to me if you could provide an early answer to the question of apprentice training and answers to the other questions within a reasonable time.

Very truly yours,

While waiting for the opinion of the attorney, the superintendent works with the existing organization for securing staff participation in the formation of policy. Usually this is a representative council. The council may study the problem of who should be educated, or it may appoint a committee to report to it. In either case it will need information about the age, location, occupation, and education of each person in the school district. It will need to know what is being done in other school districts where broad programs of education are currently offered. It will need to know the history of attempts to extend education locally. It will need to know what members of the staff think ought to be done. After it has compiled and examined the data, it is ready to fit them into the pattern

of what is legally possible and to propose a program. It is also ready to recommend new grants of power by the state if these are needed.

The administrator has an additional role, which is of great importance. He is dedicated to the principle that education should be extended to everyone, in order that democratic living may improve. He is the one who, above all others, is responsible for leading the development of public opinion toward full acceptance of this principle. As the problem of who shall be educated is being considered, he and the staff bring findings to the attention of the people through the usual channels of information. They are confident that the decisions of a thoroughly informed people will be good decisions. Newspaper articles, bulletins to parents, speeches to lay and professional organizations, and the like will be used skillfully and frequently by all on the staff who can bring needed knowledge to public use.

The Role of the Teacher. The teacher will participate directly, or through representation on the council, in deciding who is to be educated. But the role of the teacher extends beyond this activity. During his professional education and throughout his career he has known people who could have solved problems of great personal importance if they had known how to do so. He has known people who could have lived more happily had they learned how to spend their leisure time to advantage. He has seen children who have been retarded in their normal development because adults did not know how to be helpful parents.

He has also seen much that is good come from education. He has witnessed the growth of appreciation of good music because of the public school. He has seen the health of the people improve because public education has stressed health as an objective. He knows that education makes immense differences in the life of man wherever it is used as a constructive social force.

So the teacher, like his fellow professional worker the administrator, is dedicated to the improvement of democratic living by the extension of education to everyone. And he seeks to inform people wherever and whenever he can. In conferences with parents of the children he teaches he points out that they might get help from attending classes in child development that are or might be part of the program of adult education. In his classes he leads his students to understand the unique place of public education in a democracy, its power to make life better. In his contacts

with laymen he shows them that education and the level of business, the quality of government, and the satisfactions of the people are closely related.

A third aspect of the role of the teacher is that of the keeper of records. This is not an appropriate role for a trained professional worker, but because of the inadequate financial support of many school systems, it is one that must be imposed upon teachers if information is to be available. Having such information available is important for the sake of reaching sound decisions.

The Role of the Layman. Each citizen has the right to ask a school board to make education available to him. But this right is not exercised very frequently in most school districts. The layman is playing an important role when he appears before the board and acquaints it with his needs or those of his family. Many programs of extended education have developed widely because laymen felt that they were good and asked that they be established.

But requesting that programs be established is not enough. Good education, like good automobiles or good houses, costs money. Each layman should realize that there is no way to extend education without increasing its cost. And increases in cost mean increases in taxes. Whenever requests are made for a new program, there is the parallel obligation to seek new income for the schools. The two must go hand in hand. So the layman has a role in attempting to secure financial support for programs he wishes the school to offer.

A third aspect of the role of laymen is that of influencing the legislature whenever new power is needed by a local school board. If, for example, laymen request an apprentice training program and it becomes clear that one can be provided only when the power to establish it has been granted by the state, the laymen who made the request should join with the board, with the staff of the schools, and with other interested citizens in petitioning the legislature for the right to operate the program. And this means prompt, continued, and vigorous action. Members of the legislature must know about the need for the proposed program, the places where it might reasonably be offered, probable cost, and other pertinent information that will help them in coming to a wise decision. The records of the school about the age, location, occupation, and education of the population of the school district should be studied. Other records about the education of students—when and why they dropped out of school and

what has happened to them since leaving—will yield important information for the legislature. This information can be prepared with the assistance of the professional staff of the schools.

A fourth role of the layman is that of becoming interested in the problems of extending education to others whose needs are different from his own. The lay group who request that there be a program in apprentice education should become familiar with the needs for nursery education, adult education, and other parts of an extended school program. They should be willing to support these as enthusiastically and as vigorously as they support apprentice education. Recognition of the needs of others is essential to the improvement of the way of life for all.

Discovering the Persons to Be Educated

In many of the preceding paragraphs it was stated that information must be available from records if the question, Who should be educated? is to be answered wisely. Keeping these records is an important task of the school system. It should be performed by trained clerical personnel rather than by teachers. But if funds are not available for this purpose, the teachers can be asked to study the problem and to decide whether the information would be of sufficient value to them and to the school system for them to spend time collecting and recording it. Occasionally this might be an excellent project for high-school classes when it will improve their education. In general, it is not good practice to use staff time intended for education in order to get routine or clerical work done for the school district.

The records that should be kept are of three different types: first, those that tell where people are located; second, those that tell about the progress of students in the school; third, those that record the activities of students after they leave school.

Census Records. Each school district should keep an accurate record of all of the population residing within its boundaries. A continuing census is far better than one taken on a given recurring date. The questions to be asked should be few, important, and easy to answer. The following are suggested as pertinent questions about each individual: name, age, sex, marital status, occupation if not in school, last grade attended if not in school, address.

The first step in establishing a continuing census is securing information from every residence in the school district. A selected, small group of trained interviewers is needed for this purpose. They should be employed, preferably at a rate of some few cents per name, and trained by the local superintendent of schools. The cost of collecting the initial information from each residence is not great. Wherever possible the information should be placed on cards which can be sorted by a machine in order that data may be secured as rapidly as possible.

Keeping a continuing census up to date involves the use of many different sources of information. The superintendent of schools should make arrangements for a report to his office whenever the name of a newcomer to the community is recorded. Whenever a person moves from one residence in the school district to another, the fact must be recorded. There are several sources from which to secure the needed information. It is occasionally possible to make permanent arrangements with some of these sources for monthly reports. A list of such sources includes:

Librarian—new library cards

Moving companies—reports of moving families into, out of, or within the school district

Neighborhood reporter for the local paper—information gathered in the course of work

Postmaster—change of address cards

Public utility companies—requests for new meters or for changes of address

Realtors—reports of sales or rentals of property

Registrar of births—the vital records of the district

Registrar of voters—the poll lists

Tax collector—from the list of persons who are taxed

Teachers—reports of new children coming to school

The accuracy of the records can be checked annually by sending return postcards to a sample of the names in the census records. Whenever there appear to be substantial errors, it is wise to have a complete community-wide census. Generally it is possible to keep a continuing census within the bounds of reasonable accuracy, and no such step as a community-wide survey is necessary.

A large pin map should be kept as part of the census record. This should be made at the time the census is started, and kept up to date monthly as the population shifts and grows. A distinctively colored pin can be used respectively for pre-school, nursery school, kindergarten, elementary school, junior high school, senior high school, junior college, and adult education students, for students who are served by special teachers such as home visitors, and for adults who are not receiving education currently.

An up-to-date pin map reveals trends in population shifts indicative of developing needs for buildings. This is particularly true if a colored film is made each month. It is then possible to compare any month with any other month and to observe what change is taking place. Such a map also shows the areas being served most by the school and those receiving less service. This raises questions that need further study. Changes in the nature of the educational program may well result. If other departments of the city keep pin maps for their own purposes, such as monthly records of types of crimes, of traffic accidents, of building permits issued, or of traffic flow, it is wise to secure prints. These may be compared with the study of population, and interesting relationships may be discovered. Usually such maps can be secured without cost in exchange for copies of the school map.

Pupil Personnel Records. The question, "Who shall be educated?" cannot be answered apart from the question, "What education does each person need?" For more people cannot be included within a system of education that offers them little or nothing to satisfy them. The answer to the second question, or rather the means and procedures by which an answer may be found, are given in Chapter 10. These answers come in part from the type of information collected in pupil personnel records. They also influence to a considerable extent the nature of these records. If the correction of physical defects is an aim of the educational program, then there must be a set of records from which it is possible to determine whether or not the defects are being corrected. If education aims to prevent personality difficulties, then there must be records that will enable an observer to tell whether or not this is being accomplished.

The *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* identifies nine generally recognized functions of pupil personnel work. Each requires records about pupils.

Functions commonly accepted as belonging to the qualitative aspect of pupil personnel work are: (a) the keeping of cumulative, anecdotal, and case-study records of pupils so that their strengths, weaknesses, and progress can be known; (b) provision of facilities whereby nonattenders may be helped to become regular in school attendance; (c) an adequate health service which provides diagnosis and remedial treatment; (d) psychological service which studies the pupils' abilities, aptitudes, interests, and attitudes; (e) psychiatric service which aids pupils in effecting a better emotional adjustment to school and life problems and which aids teachers and other school officials in taking those steps which would more readily assure pupils an opportunity to become better adjusted emotionally; (f) field service which contacts the home and the out-of-school life of pupils and which gives school officials a more intelligent understanding of the forces and drives which govern them; (g) counseling service which helps youth in the solution of the numerous educational, health, vocational, and other life problems; (h) placement service which finds work for youth to do upon completion of the school career or during the career upon a part-time basis; (i) follow-up service which keeps track of the school's product for an initial period of years for the purpose of aiding youth in its initial adjustment to regular working conditions.¹

The good school district offers all of these services to its pupils. If it is to decide wisely which pupils are to receive which services—which is part of the decision as to who shall be educated—it must have full information about all of them. It is not the purpose of this chapter to present in detail the kinds of records most helpful to a school board and to educational leaders who are trying to make this decision most wisely. Some useful sources are listed at the end of the chapter. The administrator should become familiar with what is presented in them so that he may lead those with whom he works to make good choices of the types of records to be used.

Records of Post-school Activities. The article in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, cited above, states that there should be a follow-up service in order to aid youth in its initial adjustment to regular working conditions. This is an important purpose of follow-up work, but it is neither the sole nor the main purpose for keeping records of the post-school activities of young men and women. There are other and more important ones.

¹ Arch O. Heck, "Pupil Personnel Work," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, ed. W. S. Monroe, pp. 910-911. Copyright 1950 by The Macmillan Company and used with their permission.

Students who drop out of school without completing their education are neither fitted for work nor for life. It is completely illogical to send earliest to meet the complex problems of life those who have been least successful in meeting the simple problems of the school. Yet this is what is done in hundreds of communities. Some persons calling themselves educators have stated that some youth were better off out of school, that education held no more for them. Such comments indicate an aristocratic philosophy, rather than a democratic one. For in a democracy the people cannot afford to allow large numbers of themselves to remain half-educated and ignorant of the issues that will confront them in adult life. Whenever large masses of uninformed people use the ballot to decide vital social issues, there is danger that they will be swayed by malevolent and unscrupulous persons. And the way they are swayed affects all of the citizens.

So the public school, as the great agency for inducting the young into adult life, must keep in touch with youth and help them in all of their activities until they are truly adult. It must know them well enough to offer them further education of the most helpful sort. It must know them well enough to keep them informed about the activities and programs of other educational agencies that they might use. It must know them well enough to suggest that they return to school whenever this seems best. And this knowledge must be recorded so that all who need it will be able to find it and use it.

The school can profit in other ways from the collection and recording of information about the post-school activities of youth. It can determine the extent to which many of its educational programs have actually succeeded in enabling people to cope with life. Do former pupils use the library? Do they vote at primaries as well as at elections? Do they live within their means? Do they participate in community affairs? These and many similar questions help to provide much information with which to evaluate the achievement of the school.

But the most important use is in finding answers to the question, "Who is to be educated?" and the corollary one, "What education do the people need?" From records of the post-school activities of youth it is possible to discover many unmet needs. Further vocational education, courses in child care, or recreational opportunities may be indicated. Whenever the records show that large numbers of persons have unmet needs, then the administrator should recommend that the board modify the educational program or introduce appropriate new programs.

Again, it is not the purpose of this chapter to present the many record forms that can be used to collect information about youth who have left school. Whatever forms are found to be adequate after careful investigation by the professional staff will yield much information. The educator makes sure that the public understands what the data mean in terms of expanding education. He seeks to lead the community toward desiring and establishing policy that will guarantee educational services to all who need them.

Suggested Reading

F. H. Burton, "Scholastic Census as a Basis for Distributing School Funds," *Texas Outlook* (December, 1948). A criticism of the census enumeration method for distributing school funds. The author lists five specific reasons for abolishing this method, which is used by twenty of the forty-eight states.

C. A. Eggertsen, "All the Children of All the People," *Childhood Education* (September, 1947). The author argues for extension of educational opportunities and maintenance of compulsory attendance age requirements on the basis of the historical development of our democracy and its present needs.

J. R. Hobson, "Mental Age as a Workable Criterion for School Admission," *Elementary School Journal* (February, 1948). A statistical analysis of age and intelligence requirements (as measured by tests) in the Brookline, Massachusetts, school systems over a period of ten years. The author holds for greater flexibility in admissions requirements and greater use of tests rather than chronological considerations.

L. Nelson, "Analyze Population and Institutions," *School Executive* (January, 1948). The author, a sociologist, presents a case for the need to know how many of what kinds of children there are in a particular community if effective schooling procedures are to be set up. Community institutions are to be examined, too. The teamwork of sociologist and teacher is stressed.

R. G. Strickland, and P. Plichta, *Age of Entrance into First Grade*. A bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University. A discussion of relationship between age and intelligence and requirements of first grade, with an additional dimension of cultural expectations and traditional rigidity of learning patterns.

Planning the Educational Program

CHAPTER 10

American schools have a program of education in operation. Only in those rare instances where a completely new school district is being established in a newly organized community does the thinking start from scratch. Only in such a situation is the school in a position to plan from the start an educational program for which a staff is to be assembled and school buildings constructed. Except in such rare instances the planning of the educational program is affected by the kinds of teachers currently employed, the physical facilities available, and the community expectations being met. Planning the educational program is not done without reference to the current program under operation. Nor is planning the educational program a job that is ever finished. It is an operation going on from plans initially made to the continuous re-planning of the educational program.

Need for a Total View of the Program

When the community and the school organization are stable, the danger in a procedure of continuous re-planning lies in a tendency to look for small areas where improvement may be made without questioning the whole program and without too much disturbance to the rest of the program. When there is a sharp reorganization of community structure or reorganization of a school district, there is more likely to be a reconsideration of the entire program. In any event, in planning the educational

program it is important to keep constantly obvious the relationship of each matter under consideration to the entirety of the program.

In the usual situation, where planning and modifying a going program are the order of procedure, some imbalance is to be expected. Consideration and development of the whole program uniformly is unlikely. Progress is more likely to be made as emphasis is shifted from one phase to another, with the attention being focused at each point long enough to accomplish acceptable development. However, when any phase of the program is considered without reference to the whole program or without any assurance that other phases of the program are to be considered in their turn, it is possible grossly to unbalance the program as a whole. If, for example, the emphasis is given to health and physical education in themselves rather than as a phase of the total educational program, it will seem reasonable to justify much because health and physical education are so important. In considering the services and the activities that could well be included in such a program of health and physical education, a great amount of time could be reasonably urged. An almost unlimited extension of physical facilities, including special equipment, would seem warranted. To provide such services and to direct such activities good arguments for extension of staff could be presented.

In the usual school situation no one phase of the program can well have first and unrestricted claim upon the school time, staff, funds, and facilities available. Whatever portion is used by one phase of the program reduces that which is available for use in other phases. When various staff members see their areas of interest as distinct and separate educational programs each worthy of as much time, staff, funds, and facilities as can be obtained, the total program becomes a confusion of separate programs competing with each other for support. When each portion is considered in relationship to the total educational program, there is more opportunity to see each area as complementing the others and as an integral part of the total school service to youth and to the community.

At the state level it is possible to think of the educational program of the state in terms of desirable goals, standards of certification for professional employees, minimum length of school year, ages for which compulsory attendance shall be enforced, tax leeway for school support, sanitary and safety standards for school housing, and similar items. Unless the state is ready to think through the development of a complete and detailed educational program, it is of doubtful value for the state to set up

specific and detailed requirements concerning individual portions of the program. Because the local school is so dependent upon the local community, it is impossible to develop a meaningful, universal program of education for the state with any great degree of specificity. If at the state level, in recognition of this difficulty, it is determined to write specific standards for only certain portions of the program, the state will find itself unable to do so in relation to the total program of the local school. The people of the state as a whole have the right embodied in their basic laws to make decisions about all of the public educational program of the state. In the American system the greatly preponderant responsibility has been delegated to the local communities. Hence, the decisions from the state levels must be in terms of objectives and in terms of broad enabling acts that will make it possible for each local community to devise and establish the means for the accomplishment of these objectives. An examination of various state school codes will disclose that enactments at the state level have not always been restricted to phrasing objectives and to providing broad enabling legislation making their accomplishment possible through local community action.

In planning a new educational program at the local level three phases will be encountered: In the first place, the educational objectives to be achieved must be identified. Then a sequence of appropriate learning experiences must be developed. Third, the subject matter and instructional aids that will make the learning experiences effective must be located and organized for use. In the re-planning of a program already in operation this procedure will generally be preceded by an evaluation of part or all of the existing program. The results of such evaluation will determine whether present objectives are or are not being achieved and may raise the question of their appropriateness. Such evaluation is frequently seen as the fourth phase of curriculum development. Unless it is actually turned to serve as the preliminary phase of further re-planning, curriculum development is likely to reach a resting place. In a changing society and in a developing educational service, curriculum development must be continuous.

Identifying Educational Objectives

The local community operates its schools as part of a state school system. Within this legal framework it must first seek to know those objectives stated in legal requirements. Objectives are also identified through a study of the children and youth and adults who are the learners, and they are identified through analysis of current society. Objectives are accepted or rejected or conditioned by the study of how learning takes place.

Finding Objectives as Part of a State School System

Educational objectives for the state may be found in several forms. The constitution of the state in its provision of education as a state responsibility may include some phrasing of broad general objectives. In the attempt to spell out these objectives, several years ago in most of the states it was common practice to have one or more printed state courses of study or high-school manuals. Such courses of study provided content outlines for each subject, and furnished the basis for supervision by visitors or inspectors or supervisors working out of the state education department. Such courses of study were prepared by specialists regularly employed in the state education department; by visiting specialists employed for such purpose; or by individual teachers over the state, each supplying a portion of the over-all outline. If the legal requirement for a state course of study is not restrictive, the chief state school officer is in a position to provide or develop the course of study by supervisory stimulation of the many school districts of the state.

In several states systems of examinations required by law represent a second form of state control over school curriculum. The most widely known was the Regents' Examination system in the State of New York. Wherever such examinations were legally required and regularly held, the kinds of questions generally asked came to be a statement of curriculum and had the virtual effect on most schools of legally stated course requirements. Publishing companies prepared and sold for school use review booklets which presented questions used in such examinations, along with appropriate answers.

State courses of study have mostly been replaced by curriculum guides or resource units or curriculum development programs. The curriculum guide is not a directive but a handbook of suggested materials and procedures providing help as needed. The curriculum program at the state level becomes one of sharing the best thinking and experience of the various local community schools of the state so that inter-stimulation is achieved.

Specific laws may also require attention to such matters as the harmful effects of alcohol and narcotics or the proper respect for and handling of the flag. If such requirement is not directive in terms of amount of time or manner of presentation, it can be considered a broad statement of objectives to be included in the curriculum planning done under the direction of the chief state school officer or the local board of education. When it is more specific, it tends to pull out a separate part of the total school program and treat it without relationship to the whole program. This also reduces the area of discretion left the chief state school officer or the local board of education.

By way of illustrating the kinds of purposes stated in the law and the degree to which they represent restricting directives, Article 27 of the Illinois State School Code is examined. The following provisions are noted in order:¹

Schools are for "instruction in the branches of education—prescribed in the qualifications for teachers" by the state and also in other areas which "the school board or the voters of the district at the annual election of school board members may prescribe." An examination of the certification law does not disclose any stated standard list of subjects prescribed. Such list, if existent, would be stated in the certification requirements provided by the State Teachers Examining Board and could be revised by that group. Thus, this section of Article 27 represents a grant of local autonomy within rather broad limits.

It is provided, next, that instruction "in the elementary branches of education in all schools shall be in the English language."

American patriotism, the principles of representative government, the proper use and display of the American flag, and the use of the Australian ballot system shall be taught. In connection with this last provision it is stated that any ballot forms used in the instructional program shall contain no designation of existing political parties. Such instruction in patriotism,

¹ Based on a sequential consideration of Sections 1 through 23 of Article 27 of *The School Code of Illinois*.

representative government, use and display of the flag, and voting is to be provided for not less than one hour of each school week in the seventh and eighth grades and in all the high-school grades.

All pupils in public schools and in teachers colleges "as soon as practicable," are to "be required to engage daily, during the school day, in courses of physical education for an instructional period, exclusive of recess and lunch periods and equal in length to the regular periods of the school day; or, where local conditions make it inadvisable, by a program of two hundred (200) minutes weekly distributed over a period of three or four days." The law provides that no student or elementary teacher shall be graduated from a teachers college or normal university who "has not had a minimum of one course in methods and materials in the teaching of physical education and training." The specific mandatory provisions would seem to place a prior claim on two hundred minutes a week of school time for physical education courses without consideration of the other pressing demands for the use of school time and without making possible the integration of physical education work with other subjects or activities of the school.

Another section of the Illinois law states the purposes to be served by the courses in physical education and training as follows:

1. to develop organic vigor;
2. to provide bodily and emotional poise;
3. to provide neuro-muscular training;
4. to prevent or correct certain postural defects;
5. to develop strength and endurance;
6. to develop desirable moral and social qualities;
7. to promote hygienic school and home life; and
8. to secure scientific supervision of the sanitation and safety of school buildings, playgrounds, athletic fields and equipment thereof.

Such statement of purposes would seem a more appropriate provision at the state level than the specification of so many minutes of time each week. It would help establish the goals of education in each community and, without the specific provision of time and other details, would leave the local school district free to work out this phase of the program in proper relationship to the total program of education in the local school.

The law with respect to teaching the nature and effect of alcoholic drinks and narcotics is more directive.

All pupils in such schools below the second year of the high school and above the third year of elementary school work or in corresponding classes of ungraded schools shall be taught and shall study this subject every year from suitable textbooks in their hands, not less than four lessons a week for ten or more weeks of each year, and must pass tests in this as in other studies. In all such schools pupils in the lowest three elementary school years, or in corresponding classes in the ungraded schools, shall each year be instructed in this subject orally for not less than three lessons a week for ten weeks each year, by teachers using textbooks adapted for such oral instruction as a guide and standard. The textbooks shall be graded to the capacity of the fourth year, intermediate elementary and high school pupils, or to corresponding classes in ungraded schools. For students below high school grade the textbooks shall give at least one-fifth their space, and for students of high school grade shall give not less than twenty pages, to this subject. The pages on this subject in a separate chapter at the end of the book shall not be counted in determining the minimum. In all State normal universities and teachers colleges, teachers' training classes and teachers' institutes, adequate time and attention shall be given to instruction in the best method of teaching such subject, and no teacher shall be certificated who has not passed a satisfactory examination in this subject and the best methods of teaching it. Any school officer who neglects or fails to comply with the provisions of this section shall forfeit and pay for each offense the sum of not less than five dollars nor more than twenty-five dollars.

Such a provision as this prescribes textbook teaching and specific compartmentalization of learning. If followed to the letter, it would likely set such subject matter off as an extra activity, unrelated to the total learning and growth pattern of the child, and be done primarily to meet a legal obligation. The law does not indicate the purposes to be sought through such education, but prescribes, rather, the specific means.

Another section of Article 27 provides that every public school teacher "shall teach the pupils honesty, kindness, justice and moral courage for the purpose of lessening crime and raising the standard of good citizenship." Another provides that "not less than one-half hour of each week during the whole of each term of school shall be devoted to teaching the pupils kindness and justice to and humane treatment and protection of birds and animals, and the part they fulfill in the economy of nature." The law prohibits experiments upon any living animal for the purpose of demonstration in any study in any public school. It prohibits the use for dissection of any animal provided by pupils or killed in their presence and in all cases prohibits the use of dogs or cats for dissection. (The question might be

raised as to whether or not the law literally prohibits the feeding demonstrations carried on in connection with vocational agriculture classes since they are, literally, demonstrative experiments on living animals.) In connection with such character education and humane treatment of birds and animals, including the prohibitions concerning experimentation and dissection, the law requires the principal or teacher of each public school to state in his monthly reports whether these requirements have been complied with. The penalty for failure to comply with the law is a loss of 5 per cent of the salary for the month in which the provisions of the law are violated.

Another section of Article 27 provides a procedure by which fifty voters may petition for an election on the offering of manual training in a high school district, and the law provides a penalty for failure to comply with the actions taken under the law.

Next in order is a provision that school boards may provide in all grades instruction in safety education, which is interpreted to include:

1. automobile safety, including traffic regulations and highway safety;
2. safety in the home;
3. safety in connection with recreational activities;
4. safety in and around school buildings; and
5. safety in connection with vocational work or training.

The law provides for appropriate services in connection with an "Arbor and Bird Day," a "Leif Erickson Day," and an "American Indian Day," and for the teaching of the history of the United States:

The teaching of history shall have as one of its objectives the imparting to pupils of a comprehensive idea of our democratic form of government and the principles for which our government stands as regards other nations, including the studying of the place of our government in world-wide movements and the leaders thereof, with particular stress upon the basic principles and ideals of our representative form of government. No pupil shall be graduated from the eighth grade of any public school unless he has received such instruction in the history of the United States and gives evidence of having a comprehensive knowledge thereof.

The final provision of Article 27 is that the history of the Negro race may be taught.

Throughout Article 27 of the Illinois State School Code are a variety of provisions with respect to the course of study. Some state objectives and purposes, some suggest areas, some prescribe the means and fail to state the ends to be achieved.

A second illustration is offered from the *School Laws of Oklahoma*. Section 59 of Article IV lists among the powers and duties of boards of education the power "to maintain and operate a complete public school system of such character as the board of education shall deem best suited to the needs of the school district." In Article XI, which is concerned with the curriculum, there is no requirement that the state board of education must adopt or prescribe any course of study. However, in Section 170 general direction is provided in terms of areas to be included:

Courses of Study—What to Include: Courses of study formulated, ~~prescribed~~, adopted or approved by the State Board of Education for the instruction of pupils in the public schools of the State shall include such courses as are necessary to insure:

a) The teaching of citizenship in the United States, in the State of Oklahoma, and other countries, through the study of the ideals, history and government of the United States, other countries of the world, and the State of Oklahoma, and through the study of the principles of democracy as they apply in the lives of citizens;

b) The teaching of health, physical fitness, and safety through the study of proper diet, the effects of alcoholic beverages, narcotics and other substances on the human system and through the study of such other subjects as will promote healthful living and help to establish proper health habits in the lives of school children; and through training in the driving and operation of motor vehicles and such other devices of transportation as may be desirable and other aspects of safety which will promote the reduction of accidents and encourage habits of safe living among school children;

c) The teaching of the necessary basic skills of learning and communication, including reading, writing, the use of numbers and such other skills as may be necessary for efficiency in the normal process of living;

d) The teaching of the conservation of natural resources of the State and the Nation that are necessary and desirable to sustain life and contribute to the comfort and welfare of the people now living and those who will live here in the future, such as soil, water, forests, minerals, oils, gas, all forms of wild life, both plant and animal, and such other natural resources as may be considered desirable to study;

e) The teaching of vocational education, by the study of the various aspects of agriculture, through courses and farm youth organizations, such

as FFA and 4-H Clubs, homemaking and home economics, trades and industries, distributive education, as will promote occupational competence among school children and adults as potential and actual citizens of the State and nation;

f) The teaching of such other aspects of human living and citizenship as will achieve the legitimate objectives and purposes of public education.

Such provisions are not directive nor restrictive but do serve as guides to indicate the general character of education to be expected in the state.

In identifying objectives for the local educational program it is possible to start with a knowledge of those objectives stated in the laws of the state. The rules and regulations of the local board of education, if in accord with state laws, have the legal effect of state law for the particular territory to which they apply. A review of pertinent actions of the board of education would be a further procedure to be followed in the identification of existing educational objectives. All of these statements represent legal requirements to be met or changed. They have developed as the result of pressures of special interest groups at the local and at the state level. They have come about as the result of collective thinking about education—or about special areas of education. Such objectives represent the statement of agreements reached in the past, as little or much thinking was given to education generally or to specific aims that might be achieved through educational means.

Finding Objectives through Study of the Learner

Another approach to the identification of educational objectives is the study of the learners—children, youth, and adults. How do growth and development take place? How do individuals respond? What are their interests, abilities, and problems? What things must be accomplished by individuals as they grow up and as they face the various situations they meet? What are the characteristics of individuals at various stages in their development? To what extent must objectives be identified and emphasized in accordance with the period of development of the individual learner? The needs of learners identified through study of children, youth, and adults will provide a source of educational objectives.

These studies are made by anthropologists, sociologists, psychologists, pediatricians, gerontologists, educators, and students of human development. It would seem that we actually know more about the life cycle of

insects, the characteristics and nature of various wild and domesticated animals, the growth of a variety of plant life, than we know about the nature and pattern of human development. Plant and animal husbandry has been able to build upon this knowledge as education is just beginning to build on corresponding knowledge. Human development in all its aspects presents a much more complicated problem than that of other life forms. It is a study in which the student finds personal involvement, and therefore a problem in the attainment of objectivity. It is a study requiring several lifetimes for any degree of completion if the whole life cycle of humans is to be considered. Studies of Arnold Gesell in his division of Child Development in the Institute of Human Relations at Yale University and of the various child-development laboratories throughout the country are providing data on the physical, mental, emotional and social growth of children.

The analysis and utilization of child-development studies by educators are important in the direction of the educational program. The accumulation of data on human development requires time. As would be expected, most of the studies accomplished select specific areas of human development for study. Because physical changes are most readily measured with instruments presently available, the majority of the studies have been centered on periods of life when the most noticeable physical changes are taking place—early childhood, adolescence, and the aging in older adults. If all data could be included in a comprehensive analysis of human development and would, at the same time, provide some pattern for understanding the nature of changes in human development continuously occurring, there would be a sound scientific basis for determining educational objectives. We are far from such an accomplishment, but there is much study accomplished which is pertinent and helpful.

In the local community, participation in study of the learners goes on in several forms. Some local communities may be cooperating with a specialist engaged in one aspect of the study of human development. All local communities should be engaged in the study of findings in the field of human development. The professional staff with the help of specialists may organize study clubs of adults so that the community may come to understand and accept such findings as may apply to the local situation, or reject such findings as may fail to apply. Because the education of the child and the individual goes on out-of-school as well as in school, it is insufficient for the school alone to know and adopt changes related to new

knowledge of human development. The professional staff must know of pertinent study and must be able to interpret the findings of such study to parents and other citizens of the community.

A study of the studies is not enough. It gives a knowledge of the average or of the typical or atypical—but not of the individual learner. The professional staff in the local situation must engage directly in study of its own learners. It must do so to determine the degree to which studies made elsewhere are applicable to the local situation. It must do so to contribute to the general development of such knowledge. It must do so to implant and grow in the local community the attitude of fitting schooling to the needs and characteristics of the learner. The role of the community in such local studies is that of making information available as requested and of making individuals available as subjects for study.

The methods of studying human beings and human development represent a field of study in itself. The ways of collecting and recording data, the procedures of experimentation, the techniques of analyzing the findings are being continuously expanded. Records of pediatricians, of psychologists, and of teachers furnish a source of valuable information about individuals singly and collectively. The records of parents kept in any one of the many available baby books provide a source of much individual history prior to entrance to school. Case studies of individuals are made of deviates from the normal, and also of random or selected samples of all individuals in a particular situation. Similar studies of groups have also been undertaken as a procedure in understanding human behavior. A variety of sociometric techniques is being developed to show the interrelationships between the individuals; these yield a basis for knowledge about the individuals themselves. Such techniques measure relationships through studying the natural grouping of individuals in the situation—that is, the individuals chosen most frequently as those with whom others would like to spend free time, or from whom they would secure help on special problems, or whom they wish to be most like. Some projective techniques such as the following are being developed: Individuals are asked to express three wishes or are given abstract stimuli which allow and evoke free response. In the art work of children, or of any individual for that matter, a study of the subjects chosen and treatment given is akin to projective techniques in the study of human beings: The paintings or drawings are studied to determine the picture of the creator revealed or implied by the painting.

Analyses of children's conversations have been made to determine

what words they use most and what areas of interest are commonly discussed. In similar fashion the reading habits of adults may be studied through records of public library circulation, study of book sales, study of magazine distribution and newsstand sales, and interviews or questionnaires on which newspaper features are read and for what purpose. Interest inventories may be taken to determine most appropriate material for a given class or most appropriate classes for the adults of a given community. Another approach is that of the "problem census," with its gathering of "pet peeves," suggestions for improvement, questions to be considered.

Observation and studies of the behavior of children and of the activities of adults have provided information. Local school situations have studied the number of pupils dropping out without completing a school course and have conducted a number of kinds of follow-up studies of both those who withdrew before completion and those who were officially graduated. Such follow-up studies may determine how individuals felt about the school program, what they think an educational program ought to be, or how adequately or inadequately they are meeting their present life situations. Studies have been made of participation in the student activity program of the school.

Methodology for studying the learner is developing on a wide variety of fronts, and studies of human development are becoming more numerous. The interrelation of these various studies has yet to be worked out. However, a study of the findings of such studies, a study to improve the methodology and to ascertain the interrelationships, and the study of learners directly, all provide means by which the school staff may obtain valuable aid in identifying educational objectives. Because of the complexity of the field no attempt is made here to summarize the current status of such studies nor to prescribe the procedures to be used by any particular community. However, two illustrations of the reports growing out of such studies, both representing sources from which educational objectives may be identified, can be suggested. One is a schematic arrangement of the developmental tasks of human beings, in ten categories classified for each of five periods of human development. This may be found in the 1950 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.² The other (reproduced on pages 252-254) represents an enumeration of the problems of American youth. Both represent sources from which educational objectives may be identified.

² *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, pp. 84-87.

*List of needs of youth designed by Harold C. Hand for the
Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program*

A. Earning a Living

1. The problem of obtaining adequate information about vocations.
2. The problem of discovering one's own vocational interests and abilities.
3. The problem of making a wise vocational choice.
4. The problem of preparing (training) adequately for one's chosen vocation.
5. The problem of developing good work habits.
6. The problem of getting a job and making good at it.

B. Developing an Effective Personality

1. The problem of acquiring good manners, poise, and self-confidence.
2. The problem of improving one's personal appearance.
3. The problem of controlling one's emotions and conduct.
4. The problem of acquiring the ability to speak more effectively and enjoyably.
5. The problem of acquiring the ability to write more effectively and enjoyably.
6. The problem of acquiring the ability to read more effectively and enjoyably.
7. The problem of acquiring the ability to get along happily with other people.
8. The problem of developing intellectual interests in order to become a more cultivated and cultured person.
9. The problem of acquiring the ability to distinguish right from wrong and to guide one's conduct accordingly.
10. The problem of securing help in solving one's personal problems.

C. Living Healthfully and Safely

1. The problem of acquiring the ability to care for one's health and of developing good health habits.
2. The problem of selecting a "family doctor" and acquiring the habit of visiting him systematically.
3. The problem of selecting a "family dentist" and acquiring the habit of visiting him systematically.
4. The problem of learning how to prevent accidents to one's self and to others, and of acquiring safety habits.
5. The problem of learning how to drive and care for an automobile.

D. Managing Personal Finances Wisely

1. The problem of acquiring the ability to spend money wisely.
2. The problem of learning how to use the facilities of a bank and of developing habits of thrift.
3. The problem of providing for the future through learning how to buy insurance and other securities wisely.

E. Spending Leisure Time Wholesomely and Enjoyably

1. The problem of learning to play athletic games and sports.
2. The problem of developing one or more outdoor activity hobbies (gardening, camping, fishing, etc.).
3. The problem of developing one or more "making things," "make it go," or "tinkering" hobbies.
4. The problem of developing one or more "art" hobbies (sketching, painting, designing, collecting art objects, etc.).
5. The problem of learning to sing and/or play a musical instrument.
6. The problem of acquiring the ability to select and enjoy good music.
7. The problem of learning how to get the best out of the radio.
8. The problem of acquiring the ability to select and enjoy good motion pictures.
9. The problem of acquiring the ability to select and enjoy good books and magazines.
10. The problem of acquiring the social skills of dancing, playing party games, doing parlor stunts, etc.
11. The problem of acquiring the ability to take an enjoyable part in dramatic activities.
12. The problem of learning how to select and enjoy good plays.

F. Taking an Effective Part in Civic Affairs

1. The problem of acquiring the ability to conduct a meeting properly.
2. The problem of becoming a more cooperative, community-minded person.
3. The problem of learning how to live democratically with one's fellows.
4. The problem of ridding one's self of religious and racial prejudices.
5. The problem of developing an interest in economic, social and political problems.
6. The problem of acquiring the ability to study and help solve economic, social, and political problems.
7. The problem of making one's self a well-informed and sensitive "citizen of the world."

G. Preparing for Marriage, Home-making, and Parenthood

1. The problem of developing and maintaining wholesome boy-girl relationships.
2. The problem of preparing for a wholesome courtship.
3. The problem of acquiring the ability to manage a home intelligently.
4. The problem of preparing for intelligent parenthood (sound sex education, rearing children intelligently).

H. Making Effective Use of Educational Opportunities

1. The problem of choosing appropriate school subjects.
2. The problem of choosing appropriate out-of-school activities.
3. The problem of developing good study habits.
4. The problem of deciding whether or not to attend a trade or other vocational school.
5. The problem of choosing a trade or other vocational school if attendance at such an institution is intended.
6. The problem of deciding whether or not to go to college.
7. The problem of choosing a college if attendance at such is planned.
8. The problem of securing adequate preparation for successful college work if attendance of such an institution is planned.³

Finding Objectives through Social Analysis

As the study of individuals in groups turns from the nature and characteristics of individuals to the structure and elements of groups and of society, another approach to the identification of educational objectives is pursued. Just as education serves society through helping to develop effective individuals, so it helps individuals as it meets the problems of strengthening the democratic society in which these individuals live. Through such fields as sociology, economics, geography, history, and political science the elements and problems of society are identified and analyzed. The study of these fields and the use of the methods of students in these fields will help identify the ends which the school shall serve. In the local community attention must be given to the broad understandings developed by these fields and to the use of such broad understanding in comprehension of the character and needs of the specific community.

Authorities on curriculum development have noted the change from rural-agricultural to urban-industrial civilization, the decline in influence

³ From "Problems of High School Youth," prepared for the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program by Harold C. Hand (Springfield, Illinois: Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction; 1949).

of the family, the rise of huge business and industrial and social organizations, the increased span of life, the lessening influence of face-to-face relationships, the shifting nature of occupations, the instability of employment, and similar evidences of social change as significant for the educational program planner. At this broad general level the elements of society have been described as universals, specialties, and alternatives.⁴ In discussing the nature of a culture in Chapter 1, this same analysis was cited. It was considered there to help the reader see the role of the school in the culture. It is reviewed here to illustrate the type of social analysis required if the school is to fill its role.

The universals are the commonly accepted ways of doing, of believing, and of judging values. They represent the stable core of the culture. The specialties also furnish stability to the culture. Specialties represent ways of doing, of believing, and of determining values held by individuals and groups in accordance with their specific ages or sex or vocation or social class. The specialties may be understood by all in a general way, though actually they are held only by those involved in situations requiring them. Specialties serve the interests of society. Alternatives are ways of doing, of believing, and of judging values not commonly held and possibly accepted by only a few members of society. Alternatives may be held by so few that they are eventually lost through indifference and isolation. They may represent the change element in a culture as they become more widely accepted and fitted in as universals or specialties. They may emerge as social issues bringing conflict and cleavage within a culture.

In a stable society the universals and specialties far outnumber the noticeable alternatives. In the promotion of stability the schools should be concerned with strengthening the universals and specialties. It is true that many of the universals (ways of eating, dressing, and the like) are acquired through association and do not demand the planned attention of the schools for their establishment. However, it is necessary that the schools give attention to identifying the universals and the specialties as elements of the culture, for such identification provides a basic understanding among pupils and citizens with which to consider the alternatives bidding for support. The schools must also be concerned with identifying alternatives and examining them to help society change in order to escape stagnation and decay.

⁴ See Smith, Stanley, and Shores, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development*, pp. 6-9.

The study of the structure of the culture and an examination of its universals, specialties, and alternatives is a task for the curriculum experts, the local professional school employees, and the students and citizens. As such study becomes a part of the course work in the high school, it should be related to student decisions about the school and to their participation in program planning. The social issues should be topics of community forums and of adult education classes. The implications of social change should be discussed in professional staff meetings and in the meetings of lay advisory councils. From such social analysis of our times, needs will be identified in such areas as human safety, conservation of human and natural resources, translation of democratic idealism into reality, development of a morality appropriate to impersonal dealings with large corporations and with absentee proprietors, provision of adequate economic opportunity in accordance with individual needs, appropriate utilization of time available as a result of increasing mechanization as well as the increasing span of life.

But the local community must also study itself. It must consider its strengths and problems. It must achieve understanding of the component groups and their interrelationships. The areas of need identified through a broad study of American life must be examined in terms of the local community situation. If reduction of accidents becomes a national goal, it is important that learners in the local community consider how to reduce the kinds of accidents that occur in the local community. The identification of the specific objectives is dependent upon a study of the numbers and kinds and places of accidents in the local community and a corresponding study of safety hazards. If, nationally, schools seek to improve the manner in which free time is used by individuals, the local community will need to have a look at the ways in which individuals living in it can and do spend free time. The number and capacity of various facilities for leisure-time activities, and the utilization of these facilities, can be examined. In any such study certain objectives for group action will be identified, as well as objectives for individual accomplishment.

The local community must look to its own economic future. What will be the basis of livelihood for its citizens in twenty-five years? Is it a modern, nomadic settlement, with vitality as long as oil can be pumped or coal can be mined or lumber can be sawed, but doomed to move on to new oil or coal fields or forests? Is its economy based upon marginal lands brought into farm production under pressure of war years and doomed to subside when competition makes production too expensive? Is there local provi-

sion of employment opportunities for the skilled and unskilled labor force available potentially, or must people leave the local community to find employment? What changes in competency, in attitude, in understanding must be achieved to provide adjustment to the situation confronting the local community? Such possible changes in the community will be identified and will provide the basis for stating educational objectives.

To what extent are local people included or excluded from the organizational life in the community? How much overlapping and actual interference in demands on people and on time do the various organized groups in the community provide? For what individuals are little or no real membership opportunities open? To what extent do the organized groups concern themselves with community-wide problems and activities? How effective is local government? How can wider interest in local affairs be generated? How can coöperative rather than competitive group projects be encouraged? What changes in understanding and ability must be accomplished to extend the practice of democracy?

Problems of health and sanitation, public recreation, fire and traffic safety are concerns of organized agencies of local government in most communities, as was noted in Chapter 4. The local health officer may work with a board of health which provides some opportunity for community expression and participation. The park commission may also provide a channel of community activity with respect to public recreation. The police and fire departments are likely to be more directly attached to the school program in terms of educational activities than to any other board or civic group. The improvement of citizenship activities may be a special objective of such groups as the political party clubs and the League of Women Voters. Civic improvement projects or civic service undertakings are functions of a variety of civic and service clubs. Any or all of these organizations may provide for community study through organized activities. They may provide for public understanding and discussion of findings through open meetings. The school may take the responsibility for organizing appropriate public forums for discussion and report of studies of the local community.

The school has a responsibility through its work with pupils and with adult students, through the activities of its professional staff, and through providing facilities and occasions for public discussion to see that attention is given to social analysis in general and to the problems of the local community in particular. Through these discussions local citizens must help

identify those strengths in the local community and in American life which they wish the school program to reinforce. They must also determine local and national social issues with which education should be concerned.

The professional staff of the school will need to furnish the technical interpretation which makes clear the meaning of the problem for education. With what effectiveness is the school program currently dealing with the objectives derived from the study of society? What educational materials and procedures can be developed to serve these objectives? What portion of the objectives cannot be served by the school at all and must, therefore, become areas of activity for the total community or for organized groups within the community?

Acceptance of Objectives Related to How Learning Takes Place

The purposes of the school will be sought through a study of the existing situation as embodied in legal requirements, present program, and policy statements of the local school; from study of the learner; and through study of society. The acceptability of objectives and the plans for achieving them are dependent upon a knowledge of how learning takes place. The study of how learning takes place is another continuous effort. Psychologists have not to date agreed upon a definition of learning, but they can report conditions conducive to learning and those inhibiting learning. It is true that educational psychology will not concern itself directly with what should be learned. However, as it does identify what can be learned and the situations in which learning can take place most effectively, it will condition to that extent the selection of objectives to be served by the school.

Planning Learning Experiences

In planning the educational program the first step has been identified as a continuous study of what the school should teach in terms of the objectives to be accomplished. The second step in this continuous process is the determination of how it shall be taught. What learning situations shall be provided? What instructional materials shall be available? By what individuals will instruction be given?

The reader will recall the interaction of school and community described in Chapters 2 and 4. In Chapter 2 a more detailed listing of the learning experiences for each age level was reported.

Throughout this process of determining how school shall be taught, the community makes situations, materials, and people available, and the professional staff selects and organizes for effective learning. Through school taxes and formal school organization the community provides most of what we commonly consider as schooling. It provides the buildings in which learning takes place. It pays for a staff of sufficient size to carry on the work of the school as locally conceived. It makes financial provision for equipment and supplies. Within the limits of support available, the professional staff, working within the legal structure of responsibility of boards of education, selects and organizes to provide appropriate learning experiences. The community provides for instructional and non-instructional positions. Through the professional staff working with the board of education the personnel filling these positions are selected, employed, and organized. The professional staff schedules the utilization of the available school housing and plans that which is to be made available. It also determines the kinds of equipment and supplies to be used.

Personnel, materials, and situations not a part of the regular school are also available in the community and are to be utilized by the professional staff. The community is full of people with special information and skills. Since the second world war almost every community has individuals who have been in various parts of the world. Old settlers know the early history of the community. Municipal officials and civic leaders know community problems. There are individuals engaged in a variety of occupations which they can explain. Many individuals enjoy avocational pursuits which they can share with the pupils. Pupils and teachers may want to go to these individuals or they may want to invite such individuals to come to the school. The professional staff organizes for coöperation with them.

The community is full of learning situations. Elementary pupils may be taken to the stores, bank, post office, fire station, local factories, airport, railway station, farms, town hall, local courts. Coöperative part-time employment for training purposes may be arranged for secondary school pupils in stores, garages, professional offices, banks, local shops and factories, and with various tradesmen. Many instructional materials are also available in the local community. Amateur movies, souvenirs from travels, costumes and other material characteristic of racial backgrounds represented, collections of rocks or leaves or insects or stamps, industrial process exhibits, historical items, and many other things are to be found in almost any community. The community and the people of the community

must make such situations, materials, and people available to the school. The professional staff must know of them and organize for their effective use.

In terms of knowledge about how learning takes place and in terms of knowledge of individual learners, the professional staff must organize learning experiences to accomplish the objectives identified and accepted. This involves consideration of the fitting of learning experiences to the age level of the learners and adjusting learning experiences to the time available. It involves establishing a sequence to learning experiences so that one experience leads into the next and builds upon the preceding. It involves achieving comprehensiveness, so that each portion of learning experiences is related to all other portions and that the collective learning experiences make possible the achievement of the educational objectives accepted by the local community. These objectives must provide the guide lines. Learning experiences should not be chosen simply because they are available. They should be selected in order to accomplish the purposes for which the school is maintained.

Locating and Organizing Subject Matter

The textbook has played a special role in American schools in the provision of learning experiences. Knowledge is organized and classified under subjects so that it will be readily accessible for use. As American schools began to draw on such knowledge, it was presented in textbook form according to subject field. The early American school was established to teach individuals to read. When they had learned to read, they stayed in school to read to learn. With the historical antecedent of a reading school, and at a time when the effort in mass education demanded more teachers than could be completely and professionally trained, the rapid development of excellent textbooks in America compensated in great part for the lack of adequate professional training. As in no other country the textbook came to have significant importance. The textbook writers, approaching pupils from a subject-field background, determined what sequence would be of interest to pupils psychologically. They suggested learning activities to make the book interesting. They stated objectives that could be served by the subject field presented. We depended so heavily upon the textbook that it became the course of study for many schools. The covering of the selected textbooks became the learning experiences to be provided. We lost sight of the fact that textbooks are tools with which to learn, rather than what is to be learned.

With the democratizing of education so that full advantage is taken of the American system of state responsibility implemented through a lay board of education in each local community, increasing emphasis is being placed upon making educational decisions as near each individual pupil as possible. When dependence on the textbook was paramount, such decisions were made by a subject-matter specialist remote from the children and the local situation. When schooling was evaluated by the effectiveness with which the textbooks were covered, the teacher became a tool of the text in trying to explain and put it across. The maximum consideration for development of each individual requires that the professionally trained teacher assume paramount importance and that the textbook become one source of assistance to the teacher in his work. As teachers achieve professionalization and are competent to make decisions about subject matter and method in terms of the specific community in which they are teaching and the particular group of learners with whom they are working, the textbook writers will find that the teaching manuals they prepare will have decreasing usefulness. This will raise an educational issue as to the best form in which to produce printed materials of instruction and the most effective manner in which they shall be used.

Learning experiences and objectives should not be determined by subject matter. The subject matter should fit the learning experiences being provided so that the objectives derived through review of the existing requirements, study of the learner, and study of society are achieved. As knowledge continues to develop, we already have much more information and expert opinion available in the form of possible course content than can ever be used by any one group of students or any individual. The selection of content, or subject matter, is a fundamental part of the selection and organization of learning situations. If we believe in conformity, standardization, and centralization, then we approve removing such selection from each teacher's activities and leaving it in the hands of the textbook writers and publishers and of state departments of education. If we believe in meeting individual needs in terms of actual community situations, we will develop professional training to the level where teachers are competent in the selection of content to serve the objectives derived through study by the local community and the local professional staff. This poses a problem for textbook publishers, requiring a re-study of the kinds of printed materials most useful. In the meantime professional staffs of local school systems will make use of multiple textbooks and of a wide variety of other kinds of printed materials. They will also select as content

that material which is available in films, recordings, slides, and by radio and television.

From the discussion in this chapter, it is evident that the process of planning the educational program in the local community involves participation of all interested individuals at various points. Objectives to be served by the school must be clearly identified and must be modified through continuous study. The learning experiences that must be provided to achieve the objectives are to be selected and arranged. The content useful in such learning situations for achievement of the objectives is to be selected and organized.

Suggested Reading

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Yearbook, 1944, *Toward a New Curriculum*. This Yearbook ends with a statement of curriculum issues and problems. It begins with an explanation of "new" educational experiences such as "work experience" and "community service." It covers all levels from preschool children to adults.

A.S.C.D., Yearbook, 1945, *Group Planning in Education*. Includes some important issues in curriculum development. The discussions are uneven in scope and quality, but all are probably of some worth in considering problems of curriculum planning.

William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities*. The author makes out the best possible defense for both traditional and newer forms of curriculum organization. He argues that the newer forms are more in keeping with education of beginners, while the traditional ones are more appropriate as the student matures. The argument is oriented to procedural comparisons.

Effie G. Bathurst, *Petersburg Builds a Health Program*, U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1949, No. 9. An account of a survey conducted by the school children of Petersburg, West Virginia, aimed at finding out the health needs of the community. Another example of curriculum planning based on community needs.

H. L. Caswell (Editor), *The American High School: Its Responsibility and Opportunity*, Eighth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. Several outstanding educators wrote chapters. The book (published in 1946) is oriented to the issues challenging an education just coming out of war and facing the problems of building a curriculum for peacetime. These problems include vocational education, teacher training, social dislocations of all sorts, and administrative adjustments.

Central New York School Study Council, *Guide for Local Curriculum Study*. An attempt to stimulate local schools to undertake coöperative curriculum planning. Written in action terms and organized step-wise, in outline. A bibliography is included.

R. W. Edgar, "Coöperative Approach to Curriculum Surveys," *Educational Leadership* (January, 1950). A report of a curriculum survey in Great Neck, Long Island, in which "experts" were used as resources rather than as dictators or arbiters. Students, citizens, and local teachers supplied the human, dynamic element which, the author finds, was much more important than the "experts."

Walter Gaumnitz and Grace S. Wright, *Broadening the Services of Small High Schools*, U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1948, No. 9. Designed to help rural educators expand their school services to meet the unique needs of rural youth. The basic theory seems to be vocational in a strict sense, with little or no place for general education.

J. Minor Gwynn, *Curriculum Principles and Social Trends*. Beginning with an historical account of the evolution of the curriculum, the author proceeds to give lengthy and documented explanations of what the state of affairs in curriculum is today. The work stresses a great variety of descriptive factors in curriculum planning, which makes it of use as a reference source.

Virgil E. Herrick and Ralph W. Tyler, *Toward Improved Curriculum Theory*. A collection of papers presented at a curriculum theory conference held in 1947. The authors include the foremost names in American curriculum development. The editors have organized the papers into five sections, beginning with "The Orientation of Curriculum Theory to Its Task" and closing with "Looking Ahead." The entire collection is extremely worthwhile.

A. T. Jersild, and Associates, *Child Development and the Curriculum*. An outgrowth of a Horace Mann-Lincoln research project on curriculum, this work attempts to summarize what is known in child development and what that knowledge permits and requires in curriculum development. The child is reported on from infancy through adolescence.

J. M. Lee, and Dorris May Lee, *The Child and His Curriculum*. A book oriented directly to a study and understanding of children as the basis for curriculum planning. A great majority of space is devoted to issues at the technique level. As a contrasting approach, this book has worth for those studying various notions of curriculum development.

Charles M. MacConnell, E. O. Melby, and C. O. Arndt, *New Schools for a New Culture*. An attempt to justify "core programs" in terms of their ability to supply education with answers to present-day problems. The authors appraise our present schools, the family, need for new teachers, and a proposed new school.

I. James Quillen and Lavone Hanna, *Education for Social Competence*. Part of a report of a five-year study of social education. The concern of the

authors' is to inquire into the nature and place of social studies in the curriculum as well as techniques for teaching it.

B. Othanel Smith, William O. Stanley, and J. Harlan Shores, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development*. The authors present a thorough analysis of all important theoretical issues in curriculum development. The approach taken goes through social diagnosis, functions of education, criteria for selecting content, technical issues in curriculum, various types of curriculum, human-relations, and a final section on the point of view held by the authors: "Social Reconstruction."

Teachers College Record (February, 1949). This entire issue is devoted to curriculum improvement. Among the authors are some of the foremost curriculum people in education. The issue is divided into the following major parts: "Complexity of Curriculum Change," "Coöperative Curriculum Development: A Symposium," "Preparing Teachers for Modern Schools," and "Unfinished Business in Curriculum Development." A good reference source.

S. Van Steenbergh, "Needed: Another Look at Our Curricula," and "Real-life Experiences in the Classroom," *High Points* (September, 1950). Two articles which take as their basic premise the notion that curriculum proposals should be oriented to the kinds of "experiences" that will help children fulfill their "pressing needs." The stress is upon "real-life" experiences. A list of one hundred experiences and what needs they serve is provided. A short account of a classroom in which "real-life experiences" exist is given.

Administering Educational Program Change

CHAPTER 11

Much of the material written on school curriculums has been concerned with curriculum making. Less has been written about curriculum installation. The development of curriculum materials becomes little more than a practice exercise for the sake of in-service training unless such materials come to be used in an operating educational program. Planning the educational program is a continuous process which must be accompanied by continuous adoption and utilization of the plans made. During the war years manufacturing companies demonstrated the speed with which complete reorganization of production lines could be accomplished, with new machines replacing others which were thrown away. Schools are not of production-line character, receiving young children and processing them through the years into mature adults. Curriculum change cannot be effected as directly and arbitrarily as the managerial shift of the production line. The American public school has more of a biological character. It is a living, growing, social organism. On occasion program changes may be accomplished by surgery and grafting, but they will more regularly be accomplished through the school's tasting, ingesting, and assimilating the new learning experiences planned for the educational program.

The assimilation of educational program changes is dependent upon the pattern of organization of the existing program. It is accomplished through people—staff members, pupils, and citizens of the community. Unless they are changed, no real change in program is accomplished. It involves also the modification of such managerial procedures as scheduling, grouping, record keeping.

Patterns of Curriculum Organization

For purposes of analysis, various writers have classified patterns of curriculum organization according to type. In actual practice few, if any, clear-cut examples of any specific type exist. The local school is more likely to seek the best elements of the various types of curriculum organization and avoid complete adherence to any one theoretical type. Identifiable types of curriculum organization have been grouped into three classifications by Smith, Stanley, and Shores.¹

The Subject Curriculum

In the general acquisition of knowledge the method of logical analysis has required classification of total knowledge into divisions of subject-matter fields. The scholars contributing to the development of an ever-increasing body of knowledge have found these divisions useful and have devoted themselves to specialized fields of study for the sake of knowledge itself. When the schools are considered basically to be the social instrumentality for conveying the knowledge of the culture to succeeding generations, it is natural that the classifications of the scholars should be used.

Since the efforts of scholars were toward understanding and toward arranging in logical sequence for the sake of understanding, a curriculum organized on the subject-field division of knowledge may be expected to emphasize explanation. In its most traditional form the subject fields are presented to the learner as though his goal were to become a scholar eventually seeking new knowledge for the culture in each subject field studied. This fails to consider him primarily as a user of integrated knowledge drawn from whatever subject fields provide appropriate learning for his life needs.

The subject curriculum is the organization of learning experiences by subject fields. It is the traditional pattern of curriculum organization. We think of the "reading, 'riting, and 'rithmetic" pattern of early elementary schools. This list of subjects expanded through addition, so that pupils

¹ For a careful and detailed analysis of subject, activity, and core curriculums, see Smith, Stanley, and Shores, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development*, pp. 376-531.

graduating from the eighth grade in one state were required by law to pass examinations in twenty-eight different subjects. Our inheritance of the Seven Liberal Arts, consisting of the *trivium* and *quadrivium* and coming down from the Greeks and the Romans, has grown into about three hundred courses which can now be identified in modern American schools. Expansion of the subject curriculum has meant greater division and compartmentalization of learning. Such expansion has been achieved through accretion of courses.

The subject curriculum calls for teachers who are subject-matter specialists. In elementary education the professional staff will require the services of itinerant teachers or of special supervisors for each new addition of material on the claim that the normal staff members have not been adequately trained in art, or music, or physical education, or science. In the secondary school, where the work is organized departmentally in terms of subject fields, new additions in subject matter generally require new additions to the staff. With teachers loyal to subject fields and trained as scholars in whatever fields they teach, they will naturally resist curriculum changes except when such changes do not disturb their individual working situations to any great extent. As subject-matter specialists they are prone to division according to their fields of specialization. They find it difficult to work as members of teams emphasizing service to the users of integrated knowledge. The very nature of the subject curriculum organization leaves the initiation and promotion of curriculum change to the administrator or to some group other than the professional teaching staff. Subject-matter specialists want the opportunity of approving proposed changes even though such changes may not impinge upon their special provinces.

Under these circumstances, since subject curriculums have been the most common, most curriculum change has been accomplished through addition of courses. This has been especially true at the level of the secondary school. Increasing the course offerings came along with the rapid gain in enrollment in secondary schools from 1910 to 1940, which made expansion of staff a necessity. As new pupils came and as they represented broader backgrounds, requiring attention to a wider range of interests, it was not difficult to add courses along with the additional teachers, equipment, and classroom space required for the increasing enrollments. As that increase in enrollment slowed down for the secondary school, educators and citizens were forced to consider other methods of accomplishing

curriculum change. In a situation where enrollments were fixed or even decreasing, curriculum change by addition would become most difficult. Every new course added would require the subtraction of an existing course, and such subtraction would be met with forceful resistance.

Most of the additional courses have been added as the result of pressure group activity and not as the result of community study and professional consideration of the needs of the learner. New courses are added because some commercial publisher makes them possible with an attractive new book or series of books in safety education, or consumer education, or conservation, or intercultural relations, or polar geography for the air age. Organized local, state, and national groups with education committees have developed programs that found a way of adding themselves to the curriculum. The new material may have got a start as a special assembly program or a contest or a club activity. It may have grown to be a semester course for credit under effective promotion by the committee members of the organization, by students who found pleasure in the special attention gained through the new activity, and finally by the teacher who basked in the publicity attached to having developed something new to the school. When changes come into the curriculum in such fashion, they are generally accepted as something that "won't do any harm, at least" and that will not infringe upon the schedule territory already fenced-off by other existing courses. Such changes are most frequently added out of consideration for the interests of those promoting the addition. There tends to be little consideration of the curriculum as a whole in its effect upon pupils. The fragmentation and compartmentalization of learning are thus increased.

When working with a subject-curriculum organization, change may be accomplished either through procedures creating the least possible disturbance to the rest of the curriculum or through procedures involving a reconsideration of considerable portions of the existing curriculum. Throughout this book the authors have held that changes, procedures, personnel—any aspect of school operation—should be considered in relationship to the whole program of the school. This principle should serve to guide thinking about how to administer educational program change.

Use of Out-of-School Hours. One of the procedures utilized for addition of instructional activities without much disturbance to the rest of the program has already been indicated above—the addition of such activity in out-of-school hours. Music, dramatics, physical education, crafts, and a number of other subject fields found their way into the school program

as extra non-credit activities in the hours before or after the regular school day. As these activities gained prestige and adherents, they were moved into the regular class schedule and credit was established for them. It is possible now, however, to find many schools where band, beginning instrumental music, orchestra, dramatic clubs, journalism clubs, folk-dancing groups, and other such areas of interest are served in out-of-school hours. As they have moved from outside the regular school day into it, they have done so under the pressure of popular demand and with the professional staff either assenting or giving ground cautiously.

Supervised Correspondence Study. In 1923 at Benton Harbor, Michigan, another procedure of curriculum change through addition of courses was inaugurated when program offerings of the local high school were expanded through the purchase of correspondence courses to be carried by students as part of their regular school load. Since that time the interest in what has come to be called supervised correspondence study has grown tremendously. There is an international organization of those working in this field. A leading correspondence center for such courses is the University of Nebraska Extension Division. In making use of supervised correspondence study the local high school secures the lessons from the correspondence center, provides periods in the regular school day for study, supervises the pupil's work, and returns the lessons and tests to the correspondence center. The local school grants credit for the work done. The correspondence center prepares the units of instruction and the tests, corrects the pupil's work sent in, and certifies to the local school the mark and the credit.

The variety of subject fields available through correspondence study is almost unlimited. By 1940 the correspondence center at the University of North Dakota² had available one hundred subjects including business courses, agriculture, home economics, art, show-card writing, store management, gas-station management, radio servicing, carpentry, gas engines, diesel engineering, blacksmithing, sheet metal work, astronomy, chemistry, higher mathematics, piano, violin, journalism, problems of democracy, and languages.

It has been pointed out³ that supervised correspondence study makes

² T. W. Thordarson, "Implementing the Small High School," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 101, No. 34 (August, 1940).

³ Van Miller, "The Assimilation of New Instructional Material into the Public High School, An Administrative Study," unpublished doctoral thesis, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1941, pp. 94-97.

it possible to add any course to the local program as gradually as the need for it increases. As soon as a few pupils wish to take a specific course, it may be offered by supervised correspondence study. Several types of such courses may be tried out while the work is carried on in this manner. As enrollment increases, the cost will increase gradually rather than suddenly. No pupils need be automatically placed in such a new course for the sake of experimentation nor for the administrative desirability of filling up a class. The supervising teacher is given in-service training in the new material. Whenever the interest produces class-size enrollment justifying teacher assignment, supervised correspondence study can be discontinued. Since one of the very real problems of curriculum change by addition has been the difficulty of getting anything really subtracted, it should be pointed out that correspondence study can be used in reverse for dropping courses. As enrollment in a given course drops to a point too low to warrant regular sessions under a teacher, the remaining pupils may still be permitted to carry the course by supervised correspondence study. Such a course can be readily dropped if interest fails completely, or it can be reinstated under teacher assignment in case of revival of interest.

Alternation, Combination, and Individualization of Courses. Supervised correspondence study is a technique useful to schools of any size, but it is especially useful to small schools. Hence it becomes an administrative device that can be used to avoid facing up to the problem of school reorganization for the sake of adequate educational program. Other administrative procedures useful in curriculum change, but which also have the weakness of allowing local communities to escape the consideration of adequate school size, are those of alternation, combination, and individualization of subjects.⁴ Alternation of classes is the offering of courses in alternate years, with pupils enrolled in adjacent years of schooling taking the course together. It is used in schools where total enrollment is small and in such elective subjects as draw a limited enrollment. Such alternation provides additional time which can be allocated to new subjects. An illustration of the way in which half of the class periods required may be eliminated by use of alternation can be given with respect to three years of foreign language instruction. Such a program requires six periods in two years if all three years of the language are offered each year. Under a plan of alternation, in one year the first year of the language would be offered to

⁴ K. O. Broady, Earl T. Platt, and Millard D. Bell, *Practical Procedures for Enriching the Curriculums of Small Schools*.

ninth- and tenth-graders and the third year to eleventh- and twelfth-graders. In the alternate year, the second year of the language would be offered to tenth- and eleventh-graders. Thus, in two years, only three periods would be required, yet pupils would still be able to take three years of foreign language in sequence.

In small schools or in areas of advanced work where enrollments are small, some use has been made of individualization of instruction. For example, several different higher mathematics courses may be offered in the same room during the same period under the same instructor with work carried on in tutorial fashion. In foreign languages it may be possible to offer more than one year's level through individualization of instruction. Through the use of teaching materials in general shop courses it is possible to keep many different kinds of activity going at the same time. To some degree the work in general shop may be considered a combination of several kinds of class activity. However, in many schools it did not develop through combining existing courses but rather as an additional course. Some actual combinations of existing courses have been worked out, as for physics and chemistry, which put two former courses into one course and thus release teacher time and room on the schedule for an additional new subject.

Introducing Change through Insertion. The addition of instructional activities in out-of-class time, by alternation, combination, and individualization of subject-matter instruction, by the use of supervised correspondence study, and by the addition of subjects as teachers, space, and equipment are acquired to care for increasing enrollments, are all procedures for curriculum change which create little disturbance to the existing program or organization. In the subject-curriculum organization one other procedure is used which does provide stimulation to the rest of the program. This procedure has been called "insertion."⁵ Insertion is the process by which new materials become parts of units of instruction in a given course, new units in a given course, or new parts of more than one given course. The vast array of source units developed by curriculum workers represents material that may well come into the curriculum through insertion. As it does so, teachers are compelled to give serious consideration to the determination of what in the old course is of value and what is to be eliminated to make room for the new.

⁵ Van Miller, "The Assimilation of New Instructional Material into the Public High School, an Administrative Study," pp. 114-121.

The use of current events in the social-studies courses represents an early type of insertion. The traditional one-day-a-week current events session probably had little effect on the balance of the social-studies course. When the local school as a unit concerns itself with a new problem or with new material that cuts across existing subject lines, a different procedure is required. If a local community decides that the school ought to give more attention to safety, consumer education, recreation, intercultural relations, or conservation, such attention may be given hit-and-miss by individual teachers. But the school will face up to its new concern realistically if it uses staff members, pupils, and citizens on study committees to determine what education in the new area is already being given within the local school system, what materials and procedures are available as developed in other schools and by writers in the field, what are the particular needs of the local community in the new subject area, how can such needs be met through modification of existing courses.

As one or more local committees line up what is already given by various teachers and in various classes in a field such as safety education, communication across the subject-field dividing lines is established. Staff members find out more about what each is doing and how it fits into a team effort of meeting life needs for boys and girls. When the committee sets alongside the first report another survey reporting recommended text materials, instructional aids, teaching methods, and suggested content in safety education, a basis is provided for determining the extent to which the local community already has, incidentally, a complete course in safety education without having such a discrete course. If the work of the committee is realistic, further information collected will show the number of accidents that have occurred in the local community, what kind they were, where they occurred, and the safety hazards existent in the community. These data will provide a basis for determining the points of emphasis in any local safety-education program. With these three parallel reports the amount of duplication and contradiction existing in the present program can be determined and eliminated. The voids in the present program can also be identified. It will then be possible to suggest the allocation of various aspects of safety education to the most appropriate subject fields so that adequate attention is given to safety by the school without adding a separate course in safety education. Corresponding procedures in other areas will provide a web of cross-ties between staff members and subject-matter fields. The method of insertion requires reconsideration of portions or all of the existing curriculum.

Subject organization of the curriculum creates a situation in which the teaching staff is most likely to resist changes or to ignore them. It calls for forceful leadership or active pressure groups. It most nearly provides a basis for democratic interaction in the form of insertion. It tends to place the responsibility for initiation of change on the administrator or those who press him.

The Activity Organization of the Curriculum

A second pattern of curriculum organization is the activity curriculum.

The activity organization of the curriculum has never been widely accepted in comparison with the almost universal acceptance of the subject organization. But since its beginning about fifty years ago, the activity organization has become the curriculum pattern in a number of scattered elementary schools and state and city courses of study . . .

The activity organization has never gained a secure foothold in the secondary school—although it has developed to some extent at this level, and its underlying ideas and some aspects of its concrete forms have influenced high school curriculum improvements, notably the community school developments. This lack of corresponding growth in the high schools is due in part to the fact that high school teachers and administrators are more devoted to the subject organization by training and by teaching habits than are elementary teachers. It is due also to the fact that the subject organization enjoys stronger public support at the secondary level and has the advantages of well-developed materials and accepted methods of instruction.⁶

Most descriptions of activity-curriculum organization are those of experimental school programs or “paper” programs in city or state courses of study prepared for use though not actually in operation. The activity organization has also been called the project or the experience curriculum. The interests and purposes of the children determine the educational program. The content is not planned in advance, but it becomes a common content as common interests of children are pursued. As stated in the quotation above, few schools exhibit anything like an activity organization of the curriculum in operation. However, many teachers and many schools have made much use of activity (or project or experience) methods in the regular subject organization of the curriculum, or in the core curriculum organization to be discussed later.

⁶ Smith, Stanley, and Shores, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development*, p. 418. Copyright 1950 by World Book Company.

If schools were organized on the pattern of an activity curriculum, there would be a constant readiness for curriculum change. The program has so flexible a guide and schedule as to permit change readily. Teachers and communities have been unwilling, however, to give up the security of a known schedule and content for one that is unknown. They have done so only as study of the learner has identified interests and purposes and their place in the pattern of human development. The further refinement and modification of an activity curriculum would require further study of the learner and of the pattern of growth.

An activity curriculum in operation requires teachers with broad training and with habits of drawing freely on each other and on additional sources of help. It requires the grouping of pupils according to interests, with sufficient individualization of instruction to provide for the level of difficulty required for each pupil included in the range of individuals with a common interest. It requires an abundance of space, equipment, and material, since the use of such physical facilities cannot be so tightly scheduled and still allow the freedom of choice necessary for successful operation of the activity curriculum. To some extent it will evoke leadership on the part of teachers and pupils, based on broad guide lines and on making many decisions in terms of the necessity of the moment.

Because of the relationships with other schools in terms of employing teachers, transferring pupils, coöperative use of special services, and availability of instructional materials, few schools are in position to adopt completely the activity organization. Laboratory schools or private experimental schools may do so. Schools of a state or a region might do so collectively. Large schools might set up an activity organization for a "school-within-the-school," providing for a smaller group from the total enrollment. Without coöperative curriculum change on the part of the schools of a sizeable area, there would seem to be little likelihood that the activity organization would ever be utilized as the basic pattern of curriculum organization in local public schools. However, within either the subject organization or the core-curriculum organization there may be much use of activity procedure, following pupil interests.

The activity organization of the curriculum minimizes the authority and responsibility of the general public and the administrator. It emphasizes the role of pupils and teachers but fails to insure coördination. If the subject organization were considered unilateral in favor of the administrator and forces external to the classroom, then the activity organization must be considered unilateral in favor of the classroom.

The Core Curriculum Organization

Much use of the term "core" has been made by curriculum writers. In the operation of schools the term is applied in three ways: Some traditional schoolmasters apply the term to the required high-school subjects or to subjects that are constants for every high-school pupil. A second application is to courses formed by fusing or merging traditional subjects and offering the new version in a large block of time on the daily schedule. The best theoretical application of the term is to courses organized around problems of areas of life, courses which have replaced some subjects in the traditional curriculum. Under any application of the term the core course is established to provide general education and leaves the differentiation of instruction for individual purposes to the elective courses.

Were the content of the core course determined on the basis of interest of pupils (as is the case with the activity organization), the core curriculum organization could be thought of as a compromise between the subject curriculum and the activity organization. Under such circumstances, if the core were expanded to become the whole curriculum, an activity organization would result. Or if the core were reduced to the point of elimination, a subject organization would be left. But the core course, while alert to pupil interests, emphasizes a core of social values derived from a synthesis of the studies of society and the studies of the learners. The core curriculum is problem-oriented and approaches directly the problems of youth in our times without regard for subject-field boundaries.

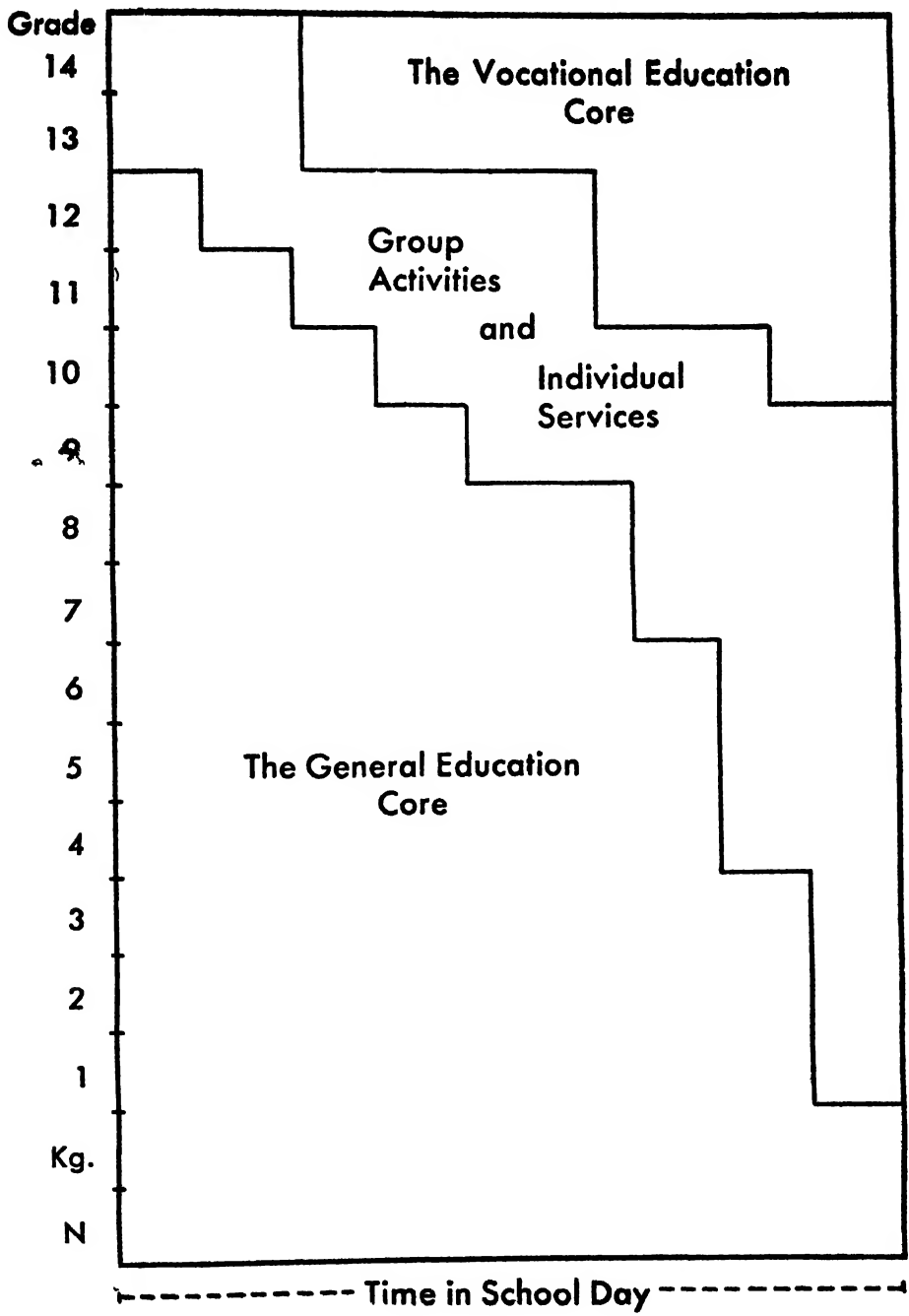
The core curriculum may be organized around broad social problems such as conservation, improvement of race relations, developing competency in home and family living to meet the rising crisis of broken homes, how much planning and coordination are required for a satisfactory economy, war and peace. It may be organized around themes of social living such as citizenship, production and consumption, transportation and communication, health, recreation, home life. However organized, it is important to note that the core curriculum is not merely a composite of subject matter that the teachers and pupils are trying to relate to life situations. It is, rather, an approach to learning by which the teachers and pupils reach out for whatever subject matter will best serve the learners' needs, disregarding existing subject-matter boundary lines. Such a general education, if filling part of the school day, may draw key material not now

included in any present subject-matter courses. And as it also draws key material from present subject-matter courses, it may thereby change the nature of such courses and their place in the total educational program. The purpose of the core curriculum is to provide general education in a relationship to problems of living, so that study and action are brought together under staff guidance leading to self-direction on the part of individual pupils and also on the part of the various groups in which they do and will have membership.

The core curriculum organization represents a reaction to the fragmentation of learning developed through expansion of the subject-matter curriculum by addition of courses. As such, it provides for large time blocks in which pupils of similar maturity work on general education under the same professional leadership. Since the core curriculum organization does provide a flexible time arrangement with no fixed subject matter and with no confinement to subject-matter boundary lines, it provides for educational program change. When the core program is so organized that a team of teachers cooperate or the teacher in charge of the program is able to call freely upon other members of the staff, the arrangement puts changes in direct relationship to the whole educational program and thus keeps all teachers informed and involved.

The usual diagram of the distribution of time for the core curriculum organization shows the core as a right triangle occupying more of the school day in the junior high school years and less time in each succeeding year. The balance of the rectangle is left for electives and other subjects. In the diagram presented on page 277, the conception of the general education core is represented, and an additional conception of a vocational education core is included as utilizing increasingly more time in the upper secondary school years. The figure is diagrammatic rather than statistically descriptive. It represents the core curriculum, dealing with the common themes of living that all have because they are human beings, as occupying virtually all of the school time in nursery school and kindergarten and successively less time through the following years of school. It represents utilization of a block of time for a core of learning centered around vocational interests starting at the tenth-grade level and increasing in the following years. The open space in the total time pattern left between the two cores is available for group activities such as athletics, music, speech, and clubs, as well as for such individual activities as drill in the skills, remedial work, health service to individuals, and the like.

TIME PATTERN FOR A CORE CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION



This pattern is based on the notion that vocational choice is a point of focus in adult life and that present programs of vocational preparation have developed by the old pattern of addition (hence, fragmentation) of subject-matter courses (including skill courses). Through integrated organization of vocational preparation courses into a core pattern it is possible to emphasize their relationship, to draw on them for application to real problems, and to provide for continuous program change in terms of developments. If such interests can be identified as points of organization around which instruction can be fitted together, it will be possible to achieve one kind of grouping of pupils on the basis of vocational fields along with the more general grouping for the general education core. As students from various vocational field groups meet together in a general education core group, there is opportunity to think about and experience the relationships of vocational groups to common problems.

The reader will readily see in such a structure the dangers of the multiple-track, secondary education and the resultant class structure so alien to democracy. He will maintain that society is already broken up with too many cleavages along vocational lines, without introducing such separation to high-school youth. In our present society we have too much of vocational associations where men meet their own kind in a discussion of current problems from one vocational viewpoint, concerned with the effect upon the vocation and seeking to negotiate with other vocational groups or with the government an arrangement advantageous to their own group. We are short on organizations which cut across vocational lines. Public forums which show the proper relationship of all vocational groups and their viewpoints are still spectacular enough to draw radio billing and good audiences.

Were the effect of the proposed structure an extension of the present fragmentation the reader would be justified in his doubt. But a school built on vocational interests could help to make public interchange between vocational groups commonplace, and only in the high school does our society have the opportunity of promoting a working understanding through interchange of all the groups. The membership in vocational groups cannot be identified in the elementary school. After high school the various vocational groups go their separate organizational ways, although they might seek association across vocational lines had they experienced in school the value and possibility of planning on the basis of their interrelatedness.⁷

The local community, in developing a core curriculum organization, needs to have a continuously growing study and concern for the themes

⁷ Van Miller, "Building the Curriculum around Vocational Interests," *The Clearing House*, Vol. 22, No. 488 (April, 1948), pp. 470-471. Used by permission.

emerging from study of the learner and study of society. It needs to provide sufficiently large blocks of time in the school day for work under individual or team leadership provided by the professional staff. Such a local community must develop pupils who learn to work coöperatively in the location, organization, and use of materials and learning situations. The core curriculum unites the interests and efforts of those in the classroom and those external to it. It provides opportunity and responsibility for all concerned in an operation requiring coördination. Citizens of the community must understand education as the process of inducting the young into the culture—a process involving all members of the society and thereby becoming a social process through which the culture is also improved.

The Relation of the Instructional Program to School Services

Schools operate a number of services considered auxiliary to the instructional program. Such services include health, library, guidance and counseling, psychological services, attendance service, school lunches, and the like. These have been included in the "all-school" program by Krug:

This all-school program is defined here as including the following:

1. Classroom instruction based on some kind of course pattern—including content and method
2. The out-of-class student activities, such as school clubs, dances and parties, athletics, student body government and management
3. Guidance and/or counseling
4. School-related work experience
5. Community services and community relationships
6. The intangibles of human relationships—teacher-administrator, teacher-pupil, administrator-pupil—which make up the social climate of the school as a community
7. School services—health, library, recreational, and the like.⁸

These school services may be seen as designed to keep the pupil in school and adjusted to the school. Actually, they provide part of the total learning situation and are not separate and apart from the instructional program. When this relationship is emphasized, it may be utilized to promote desirable program change. The following illustrations will show how this emphasis is achieved.

⁸ Edward A. Krug, *Curriculum Planning* (Harper & Brothers, 1950), p. 71. Used by permission.

The school health staff teaches as it works with individual pupils, and the classroom teachers render health service as they observe children, for the purpose of reporting signs of illness or disability. When the health service staff can be more directly related to those who teach health or health-related material, both the instruction and the health service are likely to be improved. As the school nurse, the dental hygienist, the cafeteria menu-planner, the elementary teacher interested in health education, the physical education teacher, the biology teacher, and the homemaking teacher meet together and work together, they provide for coördination and reinforcement of efforts to improve individual and community health. The physical records of pupils including diseases and defects will provide data for determining points of emphasis to adapt health instruction to the local community. The kind of health instruction provided by teachers can be reinforced in individual conversations as the nurse or the dental hygienist works with individual pupils. Reinforcement in getting pupils to eat the basic seven nutritional elements can be achieved through provision of the basic seven in the planning of cafeteria luncheons, meal-planning in homemaking classes, discussion of nutritional needs in hygiene and in biology, recognition of the basic seven in dietary suggestions for athletic conditioning, and some attention to good diet in conferences between individual pupils and nurse or dental hygienist.

The relation of the attendance worker and the instructional staff will help provide direction to program change. When the attendance worker understands developments in the program, he is in position to promote community understanding and coöperation as he visits homes. The reactions he obtains from parents are helpful guides to the program planners. Criticisms of the existing program that are derived from his analysis of attendance problems will provide clues to desirable program improvement. Information available to guidance workers and to school psychologists places them in an advantageous position to help in reshaping the school program. As instruction is related to guidance and psychological services, these services become an integral part of the program and not an extra aid to help pupils endure the regular program.

The school librarian is in an unusually good position to see the overall relationship of much of the program as well as its effectiveness. She knows the reference requirements of all the teachers and is in a position to see to what degree requirements of different teachers are in conflict or in harmony. She also knows the degree to which pupils read and what

material they choose to read when they have choice. She can help teachers understand pupils' reading habits and attitudes besides helping them locate appropriate reference and supplementary materials.

The Relation of the Instructional Program to Student Activities

In connection with the subject-matter organization discussed above, it was pointed out that many additions to the program entered the school offerings as non-credit, out-of-class activities. Local communities have used out-of-class activities to meet pupil interests and community needs in an effort to avoid breaking in on regular classes—thus overlooking the fact that regular classes already exist to meet pupil interests and community needs. In avoiding intrusion on the regular classes and the administrative problems such intrusion presents, new problems have been created: Time must be found in or out of school for the activities, sponsors must be assigned, means of financing and of accounting properly the activity finances must be devised. It is important that such out-of-class activities contribute to the regular school program rather than detract from it. But student activity organizations should not be planned as “frosting” to the school as a whole, nor as promotion of interest in otherwise uninteresting school work, nor for the stimulation of devoted application to books for the sake of eligibility.

An array of student activities provides a testing ground for student interests and for the development of materials and procedures. It does not bind the school with the definite commitment usually attached to some aspect of the program formally included in the regular school curriculum. If the area of student activities is to be used as a tryout field, schools must be careful to avoid developing a standard, fixed list of student organizations perpetuated because of established tradition and organizational structure. If student activities are to provide some real measure of student interest, each student must have some freedom of choice in selecting the activities in which he wishes to participate. Moreover, his choice must not be restricted to the list of student activities currently organized. Provision must be made for initiation of new activities on the part of students or faculty members. Such an arrangement would provide for the submission of an organizational proposal to the student council, to the school staff, or to the school board for official approval. A proposal to organize a new activity would need to indicate the number of students

interested in participating, the purposes of the organization, the proposed sponsorship, the available time and meeting space, and proposals for financing the activity. Charter of the organization should be considered on the basis of its relationship to the total school program and on the likelihood of its having a fair tryout.

The participation of students as officers and members of various activity groups, and especially their participation as officers and members of the student association, student council, and student executive boards, represents effective instruction in democratic group life. The patterns of these organizations should not be modeled after those of civil government or adult organizations in an attempt to teach the form of such patterns. The pattern should be designed to serve the purposes of the school and the student organization so that pupils learn through experience that all organizational patterns should be shaped and modified in accordance with their functions. When pupils are forced through forms and structures that do not serve the purposes of the organization, they can only feel either indifferent and not involved, or they can learn that such organizational forms and procedures are not very practical.

The student association should be all-inclusive in its membership, and any student council established should be representative of the total group. Student council meetings should be the official school-wide forum discussion available to every pupil directly or through representation. Student representatives chosen to work on coöperative committees with school board members, teachers, and parents can be selected through the council. When they are chosen by teachers or school officials, they may be pupils who seem to be representative to those choosing them but who do not always seem so representative to the total pupil group. However, when the student council is only a forum for the discussion and nothing happens as the result of such discussions, even the discussions lose point. Unless there is provision for establishing sub-committees to promote action on council decisions, or some effective student executive committee structure, the council discussions serve only as hopeful invocations to those school and community officials who do have authority to act.

At the same time it must be clear to pupils participating in student activity organizations, student associations, student councils, and student executive boards that their discussions and decisions with respect to the school represent the concern of but one interested group. They, too, must see the school in its community setting as a social enterprise maintained

by and responsive to the whole community. Decisions and appropriate action on matters of concern primarily and almost exclusively to the students will be taken by them, but their participation should not be confined to such matters. As pupils become involved through participation in problems pertinent to the whole school in its community setting, they will bring a fresh and stimulating point of view to teachers, school officials, and the community. The relationships established will provide more involvement of youth in other affairs of the community and will thus serve as part of the process of inducting the young into the culture.

Acquiring Readiness for Educational Program Change

Individuals in the community—school staff members, lay citizens, ~~pupils~~—and groups in the community will be interested in promoting specific changes in the school program. However, the community as a whole and the school officials representing the community as a whole should be more concerned with setting up conditions that make desirable change possible and likely. As any individual or group in the community works to promote specific change—unless such change is part of a community-wide accepted plan of educational development—psychological pressure and tension are increased. The specific change promoted has competitors seeking the energies and acceptance of the same group. As one change is promoted vigorously, the adherents of competing proposals become more active lest their particular pet proposals be left out. The result is likely to be either a compromise in which no proposal is adopted completely and effectively, a decision reached in favor of the individual or group able to develop overwhelming pressure on the others, or a dissipation, through indecisive discussion and argument, of all the efforts to promote change. The school officials, representing the community as a whole, should make the advantages of different viewpoints available as potential for social change and make possible fair consideration and implementation of each proposal in relationship to the total program of the school and the nature of the local community.⁹

⁹ For an analysis of driving and restraining forces, see David H. Jenkins, "Social Engineering in Educational Change: An Outline of Method," *Progressive Education*, Vol. 26, No. 7, (May, 1949), pp. 193-197.

Diversity and Adequate Communication

As the local community and its school officials consider program change, they will realize that more progress is to be made by opening the way for tryout of desirable changes than by building up pressure through criticism of the existing program or urging professional staff members to "do better." Within any local situation the potential for change arises from a variety of viewpoints. Communities can be assured that they possess such variety when members of their professional staff come from a variety of training institutions and from a number of widely scattered geographic locations.¹⁰ When different economic, racial, and religious groups live in the community, send their children to the same schools, and find representation on the school board and in the school-community organizations, such diversity exists. The community should recognize the value of differences in viewpoint as the basis on which new ideas and changes are developed.

Unless there is adequate communication, diversity of viewpoint never becomes effective as a force for change. Not only should attention be given to the provision of diversity within the community, but also every possible means of opening up channels of communication should be utilized. Staff, pupils, and citizens must all be given adequate information about the schools. This means more than simply releasing for public distribution all significant school news—it means checking to see whether or not such news was communicated. The school should do more than simply "put the news on the air"—it should check the "Hooper rating" to determine which news people hear and to which items they react. Open board meetings which no one other than the board and school officials attend; annual reports with accurate and complete data distributed, scanned, and forgotten; open forums on school problems in which no voices from the floor raise queries or counter points; quieting and reassuring school news releases in the local paper—all these, and other publicity efforts, are means of communicating. But they do not always represent communication. To be sure that there is communication, there should be some "talk-back" provision so that those receiving information and opinions react to them and submit additional information and opinion for reaction by the school staff.

¹⁰ See Paul R. Mort, and Francis G. Cornell, *American Schools in Transition*. Note especially "Teachers as Adaptors," pp. 244-290.

Organized Studies

The diversity of viewpoints exposed through multilateral communication must be related to the school and its program if desirable school change is to be realized. If diversity of viewpoints is only a reflection of inadequate and wrong information about the existing school program, little potential will remain when accurate information has been communicated. Understanding of the present situation is important as a basis for determining whether or not these differences of ideas are more than mere differences in information about what presently exists. But understanding of the present situation also provides a basis for thinking beyond it.

The local community should maintain many study activities. Some of these will be studies of present procedures and their effectiveness. Some will be studies of the learners—what pupils drop out of school and why, what pupils repeat grades or subjects and why, what happens to youngsters who are over-age or under-age for the group with which they are working, who takes part in the student activities, how much the school program costs the pupil over and above the tax support provided publicly, what help for life problems faced by former pupils did they receive from the school, where pupils graduating and leaving the school go and what they do. Some will be studies of social problems in the local community—how well are the recreational and cultural facilities of the community used, what kinds of magazines are sold at the community newsstands, what coördination of health services is possible, what kinds of employment are available and what kinds of individuals are unemployed, what is the economic future of the community, what is the quality of housing occupied by various segments of the local population, what is the amount or percentage of unpaid bills, for what goods and services do people seek outside the local community, what historical facts and places and relics are available, what percentage of people qualified to vote actually do vote.

In connection with these studies of existing conditions the value of different viewpoints, recognized through effective intercommunication, will be increased as the purposes of the school and the educational philosophy of the community are continuously re-examined and reshaped. The examination of philosophy and statements of purposes is undertaken not as an isolated activity but in relation to what the school can and ought to do about the disclosures of studies of pupils and of the

community. It is important that such consideration be undertaken when real local problems are at hand so that there is no great dichotomy between what is decided when we are just talking and what is decided when we are ready to take action.¹¹

Readiness for educational program change is also acquired as the local professional staff and people in the community keep in touch with the broad movement of curriculum development throughout the state, region, and country. As local communities get caught up in a curriculum program sponsored by a state organization or agency, or as they hear of effective program changes accomplished in comparable schools or in neighboring schools, they are motivated to see what can be done in their own schools.

Development of Permissiveness

Readiness for curriculum change is promoted as room for growth is provided in the size of the staff, in the budget, and in the time schedule. If staff members and students have time in which to study and discuss and develop appropriate program innovations, it is possible for program change to be accomplished. This involves the provision of sufficient staff so that some unassigned time is available. It also involves budget allocation of funds for curriculum development on which the staff and any student or citizen committees may draw for expenses as well as for materials that may be required in the development of new instructional procedure. It is particularly important for the staff to establish an atmosphere of permissiveness that will encourage those with ideas to suggest them, discuss them, and try them out.

Teachers approach curriculum work with varying degrees of enthusiasm and resistance. A staff will seldom accept readily a proposal that everyone must work on curriculum change. Such an order is more likely to produce an agreement—open or hidden—that no one shall work on curriculum change. This protects those who do not want to be bothered by change or with the effort of doing more than just keeping the present program going as it is. But such hidden or open agreement that none will work on curriculum change is as impossible as the order that all must work on such change. Such an agreement does not prevent those who have ideas from

¹¹ In connection with devices useful in getting the professional staff started on program changing, see Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program, *Guide to the Study of the Curriculum in the Secondary Schools of Illinois*, pp. 25-26.

having them. Under the pressure of an intriguing idea few individuals can resist some effort to test it even if the testing is done quietly, with as little notice as possible. There should be agreement that those who have ideas and want to try them out may do so. There should be obligation on the part of all members of the whole group to keep themselves informed on the developments and effectiveness produced by the experimenters. If the local community can create such an atmosphere of permissiveness, it will be possible to have some or many ideas tried out in relationship to the total school program and affecting it. In such an atmosphere of permissiveness the experimenter has not fought so hard for the right to try out his notion that he is compelled to make it come out right, or rationalize that it is right whether it is or not, in order to justify the vigorous manner in which he overpowered opposition. Thus in a permissive atmosphere unfortunate developments are not so likely to persist. With the tryout of an increasingly greater number and wider range of ideas and with these ideas more directly related to the purposes and total program of the school, there is likelihood of desirable change. And there is likelihood that only the best developments will persist.

The permissive atmosphere is further enhanced as the staff, the pupils, and the citizens in the local community experience the utilization of resource materials and persons freely. As classes can effectively use the help of a student or group of students from another class, some arrangement should be made for having them present. When people in the community can furnish special information or opinion in connection with the educational activities of any school group, their services should be utilized. As teachers are specialists in connection with problems under consideration in groups under the supervision of other teachers, they should be borrowed as specialists to give help. This promotion of flexibility in use of personnel creates readiness for greater flexibility as it may be needed and also increases the understanding individuals possess of the relationships between various parts of the school program and between the school and the community.

Whenever two or more teachers coöperate in working on a specific unit of instruction, more readiness is acquired for team teaching. Such experience in coöperating for a special assembly, or a joint meeting of classes, or a joint assignment of student work to meet requirements of two or more classes, provides readiness for further relating subject fields or areas of specialization to each other. As this readiness builds up, it may

become feasible to think about assigning the same broad block of students to two or three or four teachers who will work together as a team. They may meet class-size segments of the group in rotation during traditional-length periods. They may meet class-size segments of the group for longer periods of time as individual teachers. They may consolidate the class-size segments and work as a team of teachers with a larger group of students over a longer period of time each day.

Movement from the subject-matter fixed-period pattern to the core-curriculum pattern or even to the activity organization is accomplished as readiness for the next step is attained. In acquiring such readiness it is not necessary that every teacher be involved—only that two or more be involved and that their experience be made known to the whole staff. Procedures that work well enough to attract favorable attention, or procedures carried far enough to disclose the possibility of challenging new development, will draw more experimenters to them.

Communities have acquired readiness for curriculum change as they have been able to differentiate more sharply between general education and specialization. The commonly required subjects such as English, social studies, general science and biology, and general mathematics will be more easily modified if the portions useful in common learnings are separated and differentiated from those useful in specialized training. The common learning aspects of these subject fields can be brought together as teachers cooperate on specific units of learning or work as a team in providing general education for a general education course. The specialized aspects of these same subject fields can be reorganized into electives, activities, or advanced courses where the problem of teaching is reduced because the group of pupils who come into the course have purposes in keeping with the specialized courses.

The local community and school acquire readiness leading into educational program change as the diversity in viewpoints is disclosed through adequate communication and is related to the educational program through considering what is presently the program, what it fails to do, and what it ought to do. Readiness is acquired through contact with the broad movement of curriculum development. Readiness is acquired in a permissive atmosphere where time and physical resources and interested co-workers are available. Readiness develops as individuals experience flexibility in time arrangements, in the use of personnel as resources, in team-teaching, and in committee and group study. Readiness is acquired

as differentiation between general education and specialized education is clarified not only in words but also in the treatment of pupils. As teachers, especially, and pupils and interested citizens work together in the acquisition of instructional materials, the development of appropriate teaching and group methods, and the provision of physical facilities and instructional aids, readiness for curriculum change is developed and change takes place.

Administrative Problems of Change Installation

Administrative patterns are established to expedite and serve that arrangement of educational program which seems best at the time such patterns are developed. Many times their very effectiveness in establishing a smooth and serviceable routine gives reason for their persistence even when a changing educational program calls for a new administrative pattern. Much of the administrative detail is repetitive and routine and required as a necessary concomitant to the accomplishment of the educational program and services for which the school is operated. Since it is of this nature, there is a tendency to so organize procedures that the administrative detail can be handled almost automatically. When it needs to be changed, it cannot be changed automatically since it must be re-designed. Since such detail is the kind of thing that we like to make automatic, we resist the call to work with it in any other fashion. Thus established administrative procedures become barriers to program change.

The Carnegie unit of credit, the traditional symbols of marking pupil progress and achievement, the daily schedule of so many equally long class periods, the assignment of pupils to a group for a school year, the stated requirements for teacher certification and the lists of kinds of certificates—all these are illustrations of routinized administration set up to serve an existing educational pattern effectively and which have become so commonly accepted that their modification is a difficult procedure. The lack of interest in these things unrelated to the educational program is one reason for the difficulty. A complete change seems too much to make all at once, and a little change seems too insignificant to be worth while. Because few people have really worked at the engineering problems connected with the installation of curriculum change, many good ideas

for curriculum change are abandoned because "they just won't work in our system." We must come to see that the system was created to make "good" ideas work, and that when it fails to do so, it is time to make changes in the system.

Scheduling

The scheduling of school programs has been primarily related to a subject-matter organization in both the elementary and the secondary schools. In the elementary schools it has not represented such an administrative block because the same group of pupils are generally under one teacher for most of the day and that teacher has leeway in the arrangement of the daily schedule. In the upper elementary grades and in the secondary schools, where instruction has been departmentalized by subject fields, a system of scheduling that developed to serve this pattern effectively has a strong hold. Those who have studied and written on the improvement of schedule-making have, for the most part, started with scheduling as it now exists—a pattern of scheduling most serviceable to the subject-matter organization.

There have been studies of appropriate time-allotments for various subjects, opinions on which times of day are best for specified subjects, judgments on how many times a week classes should meet. There have been innovations in the form of short home-room periods, special assembly periods, longer activity periods, floating periods that make possible the addition of an extra time block to the total schedule by robbing in rotation all existing time blocks of a portion of their time. Procedures have been suggested so that the required general education subjects are placed on the schedule first, and the electives are then fitted in—avoiding conflict with the required subjects. Procedures have been developed for starting with the identification of individual pupil conflicts in course registrations and working through to the required constants so as to avoid such daily program conflict for all individual pupils. Most scheduling systems fix a time arrangement that persists year after year and an allocation of classes that persists for a semester or a year. Even the scheduling proposals made for the core curriculum organization tend to be a modification of the existing pattern of scheduling so many fixed units of time per day.

Is it fair to question whether all pupils must pass from one class to the next at the same times? Or whether courses must all be the same number

of weeks long—either to equal a semester or a year? Or whether it is so important to be able to know where each pupil and staff member is at any given moment that we dare not extend more freedom of choice to individuals about where they shall be at any moment? Or whether the school day must be cut up into equivalent units of time used singly or in combination? We find some breaks in the routine where certain “honor” students are given the privilege of outlining a long-range program of development and then given freedom of movement within the school on the basis of self-responsibility. Or when remedial classes or special education classes are established for some pupils so that they attend for the amount of time each day and the total number of days or weeks or months that will best accomplish the purposes established for the particular individual.

When blocks of time are broad enough for a common learnings or general education course, there is some group and teacher autonomy in arranging the best use of the time available in a situation where there is time enough to require group planning and to provide for flexibility. To what extent can time outside the broad time blocks established for common learnings courses be scheduled on a clinical basis so that an appointment staff member works continuously to keep all facilities and personnel effectively busy with the least possible waiting and inconvenience to those to be served? To what extent must the broad time blocks established for common learnings courses be the same length for all pupils working in any one class?

Grouping

The establishment of graded schools was a landmark of educational development. Pupils were grouped by chronological age and then by achievement level as a means of improving instruction. The measure of instruction and of pupil achievement hinged pretty largely upon what happened in each individual instance between pupil and teacher. We attempted to grade pupils (or group them) as we do eggs or coal—getting all the same size in the same group for easier handling. Whenever the effort in grouping has been toward reducing the range of differences present in the group, it would seem that the goal has been one of increasing the degree to which the teacher imparted pre-determined subject-matter or specified competencies.

Much remains to be done in the development of underlying theory for

grouping pupils and the development of effective procedures. Grouping must be conceived as one of the means of manipulating advantageously the educational environment to which each individual pupil reacts. Must we promptly classify and label each child for a year or for a semester, or may each have different classifications depending upon the purpose to be served? To what extent should we consider shifting groups so that one youngster is not always the youngest member or the oldest member in the group or groups with which he is associated? How much gain is there in transmission of valuable experience to the younger children and in developing some social responsibility for the older children in a group including an age range much greater than that found in the traditional school grade? To what extent is a common learning or general education course actually enriched when the group includes as wide as possible a range of interests, abilities, and backgrounds? How important is it to have somewhat equivalent skills in order to be an accepted and benefitting member of a reading group in an elementary class, a shorthand class, an advanced foreign language class, a physical education class, the school band or chorus? If effective work is to be accomplished in hobby clubs or in advanced secondary school courses, how narrow must be the range of interest of the group? What attitudes, understandings, and procedures of democracy itself are being taught and can be taught through the procedures the school uses in assigning pupils to groups?

In developing theory and procedures it is not essential that a given school compel itself to use a consistent pattern of grouping. But it must know the basis upon which any pattern of grouping is proposed, and it should devise a means of determining the extent to which the grouping procedure serves or fails to serve the particular purposes for which it was established. The local community might, for example, plan deliberately for heterogeneous groups in common learning areas as a basis for extending understanding and tolerance and ability to utilize diversity in viewpoints through effective communication and group deliberation. It might seek to sharpen the teaching of skills by trying to establish instructional groups of fairly equivalent levels of development. It might allow free passage from group to group on the basis of interests in many elective subjects and student activities. Whereas a variety of grouping procedures may be used in serving the variety of pupil needs, the local community must also recognize the importance of avoiding shifting the pupil from group to group so frequently that he has no opportunity to develop the security of membership in any group.

Marks, Credits, and Records

Pupil report cards, standardized cumulative record forms, official transcripts of credits, diplomas accompanied by fixed graduation requirements, and college entrance requirements represent another part of administrative detail established to serve effectively the educational program existent at the time of their development. As new program changes are proposed, those habituated to the present system begin to ask how much credit is to be given or how the work of pupils in the new area of instruction is to be marked. School marks were initially utilized as a basis for helping the pupil understand how he was progressing so that he might do better at his learning task. With increasing stress on marks and "passing," pupils come to work in order to "earn" satisfactory marks.¹²

When the pupil's status with the teacher, with fellow students or with parents, or his position as a student in good standing eligible for activity participation, becomes dependent upon the mark, the system of marks becomes a control device used to force conformance on the part of the pupil. Pupils objecting to such compulsion begin to find ways to beat the system. Such a system fails to serve its purpose. As such a control device becomes a convenient tradition, those who use it, consciously or unconsciously, for control are reluctant to give it up without an acceptable substitute. Since they do not wish to admit that it is basically a control device, they are unwilling to give it up at all, because most acceptable substitutes make the emphasis on control more obvious.

In the administration of educational program change the local community has an opportunity to redirect evaluation procedures to the service of learning and growth. Such records should tell us what the individual is able to do, what he knows, and what kind of a person he is. Achievement tests and performance tests may indicate what he can do and how well he can do it. The results of such tests should be part of his record and should be used by him and with him for purposes of self-direction and personal planning. They may also be used for purposes of grouping him in skill subjects and for determining his acceptability to employers or to colleges. What he knows may be indicated to some extent by an experience record indicating the fields of knowledge to which he has been exposed, the places he has visited as a traveler, the books he has read. It may be indicated by

¹² With reference to school marks, see Van Miller, "Remarks About School Marks," *The American School Board Journal*, Vol. 119 (September, 1949), pp. 25-26, and Vol. 119 (October, 1949), pp. 33-34.

a general-education inventory test. What kind of a person he is may be established by the rating of his peers, by his own autobiographical sketch, by anecdotal reports of observers, by personality tests, by records of offices he has held and employment in which he has engaged.

New methods of accumulating and recording the information about each pupil are in the process of development. Because it seems valuable to have all of the information about an individual kept in one cumulative record, we have tended to set up forms that provide for a twelve-year period. Once started on such a form for a given individual, the school is reluctant to change. This impedes the process of development. Drawn from such record is the transcript of credits and the standing in the class required so frequently by colleges, other public schools, and employers, not because it is the most useful information but because it is traditionally the best available. In any period of transition from one system of records to another, an extra burden is imposed of either keeping both the new and the old or providing for a procedure for translating the new into the terms of the old. This is a necessary part of development, but the extra nature of the burden acts to reduce the number of communities attempting such changes.

We are so used to existing report-card forms and the regularity with which they are issued that most modifications proposed are slight and are still within the concept of periodic reports submitted for all pupils enrolled. To what extent can these reports be verbal instead of symbolic or coded? Why is it necessary to issue report cards on all pupils at regularly specified intervals? Why should not reports be issued only when there is something to report that is unusual or different? To what extent can pupils participate in their own record-keeping and reporting? To what extent is pupil participation in such record keeping and self-evaluation a part of education in self-direction and in human development?

Recording Curriculum Development

In discussing the acquisition of readiness for curriculum change the necessity of accurate information about the current situation was pointed out. For any improvement that is always a requirement. We have criticized some of the present record systems, but we must admit that they do furnish some basis for knowing what the current situation is. As developments are

undertaken, it is important to have sufficient record keeping so that an administrator may always know what happened as a basis for further evaluation and improvement. In administering educational program change the need of several kinds of documentation may be seen.

There is need for documentation of what is happening to the total educational program. As citizens' committees, student groups, or members of the staff make studies of present procedures, of learners, and of the local community, the reports of such studies become a part of the over-all record. As there is community-wide planning through open discussion, through the leadership of the board of education, through a community curriculum council or committee, the decisions and actions of such groups must be recorded as part of the documentation of change. When specific changes are made in school rules and regulations, in the school schedule, in the qualifications of the staff, and in the plan for meeting graduation requirements, these changes will be recorded.

There is need for a record of the procedures followed, the skills developed, and the areas of content covered by specific classes. As a group of pupils moves along through the school, it is important that some sort of group diary move along with it for the sake of sequential development. In the same manner there must be individual record keeping for each pupil. The cumulative record for a group of pupils—especially one with changing membership—is even more complicated than the development of such a record for individual pupils. The school needs specialized personnel to help develop procedures for keeping such records and for knowing enough about all that are kept. In this way ready reference to the appropriate information can be supplied to any individual whose knowledge of it will increase the interrelationship of various parts of the program or will add improvement to any part of it.

Suggested Reading

K. D. Benne and Bozidar Muntyan, *Human Relations in Curriculum Change*. A critically selected list of readings dealing with group development. The authors supply the specific relations between social-science data and the educational issues of curriculum change. The topics include: analyzing change-situations, group methods, democratic ethics in change-making, and leadership disciplines.

W. T. Melchior, *Instructional Supervision*. Certain problems in supervision of instruction are dealt with in a series of case histories or anecdotal illustrations. Throughout, certain theories are assumed but never examined. The main aim of the author is to illustrate "practical" occurrences rather than explain their causes and effects.

Alice Miel, *Changing the Curriculum: A Social Process*. A book aimed at convincing administrators, especially, that curriculum change is needed and that it can be carried on intelligently if disciplines and resources outside the educational profession are recognized and used. The work goes on to take up each of these resources.

Harold Spears, *The Emerging High School Curriculum and Its Direction*. The author attempts to indicate the approaches to curriculum development that have come to the fore in the last decade. His main interest is in variations of the "core curriculum." Eight or nine specific programs throughout the country are described in detail.

CHAPTER 12

Deciding on Personnel Policies: The Framework in Which Decisions Are Made

No educational program is any better than the people who staff it. Plans for curriculum revision, improvement in teaching methods, selection of materials of instruction, and the participation of teachers in the administrative process will be good if the people who develop them are competent to carry them out effectively. The most important task of a board of education is that of securing competent personnel. This chapter and the following one deal with this problem.

The selection of personnel always takes place within a legal framework. The reader will recall the general discussion of this structural framework in Chapter 8. Both the inducements offered by and the requirements of the state determine the kind of person who can be interested in teaching. The particular needs of the local district, although not stated as statutes or laws, also have important consequences. Chapter 12 deals with both state and local rules.

State Certification as Insuring at Least a Minimum Level of Quality in the Teaching Staff

The basic purpose of certification is improving the quality of teaching. The state licenses practitioners of medicine, dentistry, law, chiropractic, accounting, teaching, and other professions in order to make sure that service is provided by competent individuals. The certification laws present the requirements of the state. Upon occasion both legislators and the organized profession have forgotten the real purpose of certification.

The certificating power has been used to limit teaching to persons from a particular geographic area or to graduates from particular schools. This abuse of the licensing power of the state is less common today, when there is a shortage of teachers, than during the economic depression of the thirties, when there was an over-supply. However, some of the unfortunate provisions adopted during the depression still exist.

In addition to the licensing power, the state acts in other ways to insure good teaching for its children. These are the state inducements to teachers. Guaranteeing tenure of office, providing adequate retirement pay, making sure that teachers have the right to appropriate leaves of absence without great financial loss, and other related provisions make teaching more attractive to people, and so secure better teachers for children.

The Certificate or License to Practice the Teaching Profession

Each year the University of Chicago Press publishes a document entitled *Requirements for Certification of Teachers, Counsellors, Librarians, Administrators for Elementary Schools, Secondary Schools, and Junior Colleges*. This is a helpful manual for any school administrator who wishes to compare the requirements in one state with those in another to determine whether or not teachers certificated elsewhere may qualify for positions locally. In this document the provisions for certification in California are as follows:

CALIFORNIA

Elementary School

- I. Bachelor's degree from a state teachers college or a college or university accredited by the Association of American Universities or the American Association of Teachers Colleges, the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, or the Northwest Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.
- II. 24 semester hours of professional work in education, including 8 semester hours of directed teaching and adequate preparation for teaching the statutory elementary school subjects and the subjects in which the applicant is required by law to be proficient.

- III. Principles and Provisions of the Constitution of the United States—
2 semester hours completed in an approved California teacher training
institution. May be satisfied by examination as renewal requirement.

Junior High School

- I. Same as I under Elementary School.
- II. *Academic requirements*: A major and a minor in subjects taught
in high school, or a major in education and two minors in high
school subjects.
- III. *Professional requirements*—semester hours in education 18
 - A) Course dealing with the aims, scope, and desirable outcomes
of the secondary school.
 - B) Directed teaching—semester hours 4
- IV. See Elementary School—III.

High School

- I. Bachelor's degree.
- II. *Academic requirements*:
 - A) One full year of post-graduate work offered by an institution
approved for graduate work by the State Board of Education.
 - B) Graduate work must include 6 semester hours of approved
work in education.
 - C) One *major* and one *minor* in subjects recognized by the State
Board of Education as majors for graduation from high
school, or one *major* in a field not commonly accepted and
two *minors*.
- III. *Professional requirements*—semester hours in education 18
 - A) Course dealing with the aims, scope, and desirable outcomes
of the secondary school
 - B) Directed teaching—semester hours 4

Note: Satisfactory teaching experience may be substituted for
this requirement
Applies to all credentials.
- IV. See Elementary School—III
- V. Special secondary credential in fields of art, music, etc.—Bache-
lor's degree, 15 semester hours in education, and specific course
requirements in special fields to be taught.
- VI. Specific state requirements (for general credentials only).

Junior College

- I. Master's or Doctor's degree from an institution approved by Cali-
fornia State Board of Education.

- II. *Academic requirements*—one teaching major, one minor.
- III. *Professional requirements*—semester hours in education '10
 - A) A course dealing with the aims, scope, and desirable outcomes of the secondary school or the junior college.
 - B) Directed teaching—4 semester hours.

Note: At least one year of satisfactory teaching experience may be accepted to satisfy part or all of this requirement.
- IV. Principles and provisions of the Constitution of the United States—2 semester hours completed in a California teacher training institution. (May be satisfied by examination as renewal requirement.)

Administration

- I. General Administration Credential.
 - A) General elementary credential and a valid general secondary credential.
 - B) Professional requirements—30 semester hours of graduate work, or training approved or accredited as fulfilling institutional requirements for a graduate year of training (in addition to general secondary credential) to include:
 - 1. Scope, functions, and place in the system of public education of elementary and secondary schools; rural and urban schools; vocational education; education for adults; special school programs; auxiliary agencies.
 - 2. Principles and practices of curriculum construction and evaluation.
 - 3. Measurement and appraisal of educational achievement and aptitudes.
 - 4. Pupil personnel, counseling and guidance, including techniques and practices of child study and parent education.
 - 5. Graduate training (concurrently with or subsequently to teaching experience) including directed field work:
 - a) Federal, state, county and city school organization; administration and supervision; school finance; housing; business administration; and legal aspects of education.
 - b) Organization and administration of secondary schools, including vocational curriculum or schools, and classes for adults.
 - c) Organization and administration of elementary schools.
 - d) Supervision of instruction and curriculum in secondary schools.
 - 6. Electives from areas of general or professional education to complete total requirements.

Public School Counselors

No regulations.

Librarian

- I. Bachelor's degree (four year college course).
- II. *Academic requirements*—semester hours of work in the subject groups of English, science, social studies and physical education. 16
- III. *Professional requirements*—semester hours in education, including 15
 - A) Aims, scope, and desirable outcomes of the elementary and the secondary school.
 - B) Directed library practice or directed teaching 4
 - C) Courses organized primarily for service as a librarian.
 - D) Other courses organized for the training of teachers.
- IV. Special training—semester hours in a library school accredited by the American Library Association 24¹

In contrast with these general requirements for each certificate, the provisions in the state of Arkansas are as follows:

ARKANSAS

Elementary School

Three Year Elementary Certificate.

- I. Completion of a minimum of 30 semester hours of the Six-Year Elementary Certificate Curriculum in an approved college.
- II. General requirements*—semester hours 14
 - A) English 6
 - B) Social Studies 3
 - C) Science (Nature Study) 3
 - D) Physical Education, Health and Safety 2

*Note: Must include a course in Conservation of Natural Resources or Nature Study
- III. Basic Professional Courses 6
 - A) Introduction and Orientation (2)*
 - B) Psychology (Educational or Child) (2)*
 - C) General Methods and/or Observation (2)*

*Numbers in parentheses indicate approximate number of hours

¹ R. C. Woellner and M. A. Wood, *Requirements for Certification of Teachers, Counsellors, Librarians, Administrators for Elementary Schools, Secondary Schools, and Junior Colleges, 1950-1951* (University of Chicago Press, 1950). Used by permission.

IV. Professional Content Requirements	6
A) Public School Art and Crafts	4 <i>OR</i>
B) Public School Music	4
1. Fundamentals of Music	2
2. Materials and Methods	2
C) Juvenile Literature	2
D) Geography*	3
*May be counted in General Education requirement.	

Junior High School

I. Completion of a minimum of 60 semester hours work of the high school certificate curriculum in an approved college.	
II. General Requirements—semester hours	36
A) English	9
B) Social Studies	9
C) Science (Nature Study or Conservation)	6
D) Physical Education, Health and Safety	6
E) Art or Music*	3
F) General Psychology*	3
*In special cases, requirement may be waived by Supervisor of Teaching Education and Certification.	
III. Teaching field requirements:	
A) English (not more than 3 hours in fields related to English as Speech or Journalism)	15
B) Foreign Languages*	12
C) Mathematics*	6
*Deductions of 2 semester hours for each high school credit—maximum	6
D) Science	8
1. Biology	8
2. General Science (8 hours in Physical Sciences and 8 in Biological Sciences)	16
E) Social Studies	14
1. History	6
a) European History, History of Civilization, or Survey of Economics and Social Institutions	3½
b) United States History	3
2. Other Social Sciences	8
Economics, Geography, Government, Sociology (at least 3 fields)	

IV. Professional Requirements—semester hours	12
A) Basic Professional Courses	9
1. Introduction and Orientation	(3)
2. Psychology (Educational or Adolescent) ...	(3)
B) Techniques of Teaching	3
1. Directed Teaching*	(3)
*Minimum 54 clock hours (50 minutes net)	

High School

I. Graduation from an approved four-year college.	
II. General Requirements*—semester hours	48
A) English (may include 3 hours in Speech)	12
B) Social Studies	12
C) Science (may include 6 hours in Mathematics)	12
D) Physical Education, Health and Safety	6
E) Art or Music**	3
F) General Psychology**	3
*Must include a course in Conservation of Natural Resources	
**In special cases, may be waived by Supervisor of Student Teaching and Certification.	
III. Teaching field requirements:	
A) Biology	8
B) Chemistry	8
C) English*	24
D) Foreign Languages**	18
E) General Science (see Junior High School)	
F) Mathematics**	15
G) Physics	8
H) Science (Biology, Chemistry, and Physics)	8
I) Social Studies	20
1. European History, History of Civilization, or Survey of Economic Institutions	6
2. United States History	6
3. Economics, Geography, Government, Sociology (at least 3 fields)	8
*May include not more than 6 hours in speech and journalism.	
**Deductions of 2 hours for each high-school unit—maximum 6.	

IV. Professional Requirements—semester hours	18
A) Basic Professional Courses	9
1. Introduction and Orientation	(3)
2. Psychology (Educational or Adolescent) ...	(3)
3. General Methods and Observation	(3)
B) Techniques of Teaching Course	9
1. Curriculum Construction and/or Evaluative Procedures	(2)
2. Special Methods, including Principles of Guidance	(2)
3. Directed Teaching*	(5)
*Minimum 90 clock hours (50 minutes net) in major or minor field.	
Note: Numbers in parentheses indicate approximate hours.	

Administration

- I. Completion of a Master's degree in an approved institution with at least 14 semester hours in education, including 8 semester hours in school administration of the graduate level.
- II. Hold or be qualified to hold a High-School or Six-Year Elementary Certificate.
- III. Experience—three years as an administrator or five as a teacher.
Note: College training or experience must have been completed within the last five years.

Elementary School Principal

- I. Qualifications for a six-year elementary teaching certificate
- II. Professional requirements—semester hours of graduate or undergraduate credit (in addition to those required for the certificate). 14
- III. Experience as elementary teacher, supervisor or administrator. 3 years
- IV. College training must have been completed within last five years.

Secondary School Principal

- I. Qualifications for a six-year secondary teaching certificate.
- II. Professional requirements—semester hours of graduate or undergraduate credit (in addition to those required for the certificate). 14
- III. Experience as secondary teacher, supervisor, or administrator. 3 years
- IV. See IV above.

Public School Counselors

- I. Bachelor's degree.
 - II. Professional requirements—semester hours in guidance, 9 of which must be at the graduate level 15
 - III. Experience
 - A) Work experience other than teaching 1 year
 - B) Teaching experience in public schools 2 years
- After July 1, 1952, a candidate must present a six-year secondary school certificate plus 15 semester hours of guidance work, 9 semester hours of which shall be at the graduate level in residence.

Librarian

No certificate at present.²

Some comparisons between the requirements of these two states can be made. First, those of California tend to be general; those of Arkansas tend to be specific. General requirements, on the whole, secure better teachers than do specific ones. They are not so restrictive nor so soon out of date. Second, California apparently relies upon the action of independent agencies for accrediting colleges. In Arkansas, accrediting is apparently done by the state department of education. Approval by accrediting agencies is more likely to be based on professional standards than approval by a political agency. Third, the California certificate requirements call for two semester hours of work completed in a California teacher-training institution. Arkansas does not have such a provision. Provisions of this sort have no relationship to the quality of teaching. They are intended to provide jobs for graduates of particular institutions. Such provisions are generally recognized as highly undesirable.

It should be noted that the Arkansas requirements for an administrative certificate are general, while those for California are specific. With wise administration it is probable that the provisions in Arkansas would allow a degree of flexibility and so secure better administration than would those in California.

Examination of the requirements of other states leads to the following general conclusions: First, the number with minute specific requirements for particular certificates is larger than the number with broad general requirements. Some have unique specific requirements. A considerable

² Woellner and Wood, *op. cit.* Used by permission.

number of states require that work be taken at a local institution. Some states require experience for administrative certificates. Very few states make any provision for examining the personality of the teacher. Only one state, Michigan, encourages accredited institutions to develop better programs for training teachers by departing from existing certificate requirements. It would be highly desirable for more states to have procedures whereby institutions of higher education may experiment intelligently in the preparation of teachers and still be sure their graduates will be certificated.

A certificate is issued to a qualified teacher upon application to a state officer or to a state examining board. Most initial certificates are for a definite period of time. In most states, the certificate is renewed on expiration or transformed to a life certificate upon application by the holder with evidence of successful experience. Usually a fee is charged for issuing a certificate. In many states a certificate must be filed with the county superintendent of schools by each teacher employed in the county. Certificates are voided for very serious breaches of professional conduct, for morals charges, or for serious crimes. They are also voided, in some states, if the teacher fails to do enough professional study or teaching during the life of the certificate.

The administrator should be thoroughly familiar with the certificate requirements of his own state. He should be alert to opportunities for improvement of these requirements in order that education in the state may be improved.

Tenure, Retirement Systems, and Leaves

Tenure as a Guarantee of Good Teaching

Tenure of office in public education has been established so that teaching positions may be free from the spoils system of providing jobs on the public payroll to supporters of particular political machines. According to the theory underlying tenure provisions, a teacher serves a probationary period in the school district. During this time he is supervised carefully, and his work is evaluated thoroughly. He is fully informed about his shortcomings and assisted to improve. The probationary period enables the teacher to determine whether or not he wishes to remain at work, and

the school district to determine whether or not it wishes to retain the teacher. At the end of the probationary period, the teacher is either elected to serve without term or is dismissed.

A teacher with tenure is entitled to a hearing of the charges against him if his dismissal is proposed, and is permitted to present evidence to rebut the charges. In most states the hearing is a public one if the teacher wishes it to be such. In some states, the reasons valid for dismissal are spelled out in some detail in the law. These usually are conduct unbecoming a teacher, insubordination, incompetence, marriage (in the case of a female teacher), and usually the phrase, "other good cause." Most generally, the board of education is the agency that hears the charges against the teacher, the rebuttal of his charges, and makes a decision. This places the board in a rather anomalous situation. Legally it is the employer of the teacher. In effect, the agency that seeks to dismiss the teacher is also the agency that hears the charges and determines whether or not the teacher should be dismissed.

There is value in tenure of office for teachers. It has eliminated the spoils system. It has given teachers security to devote their time fully to the problems of the profession without anxiety about future employment. On the other hand, there is some reason to believe that the difficulties of dismissing a teacher on tenure are so great that few administrators attempt to eliminate the obviously unfit from the staff. Investigations in large cities have shown that persons are employed who have personality disabilities serious enough to affect students adversely. The tenure laws have retained good teachers who are free from political influence; they have also retained a small number of undesirable persons. This is not wholly a defect in the law. It reflects, to some extent, the lack of courage of persons in school administration. It may also reflect lack of administrative skill in operating under existing laws. In any event, the good in the tenure law, which is substantial, should not be abrogated because of the dangers in it, which, although small in number, are acutely present.

Tenure is being extended to more and more employees of public school systems. Dismissal seems to be increasingly difficult. The National Education Association looks upon tenure laws as establishing an orderly means of dismissing incompetent teachers. The official attitude of the organized profession appears to be that the retention of a few incompetent teachers is not the fault of the law, but the fault of administration under the law. Thus the profession seeks to secure the benefits of tenure for more

persons. In certain states, with rather strict tenure laws, some teachers are employed only for the probationary period and are not placed on tenure. These marginal teachers move from place to place, serving successive probationary periods. In some states small communities are exempted from the operation of the tenure law.

Some court decisions and some tenure laws determine tenure rights on the basis of the area in which the secondary teacher is certificated. If, for example, there is a diminishing enrollment in French classes and it is necessary to drop a French teacher, it might be found that the French teacher with the least service was also certified to teach English. It would then be necessary to examine the credentials of all English teachers to discover whether any one of them had less service than the French teacher. If this were true, it would be necessary to drop an English teacher because of a decrease in enrollment in French classes.

The problem of dropping teachers when there is a reduction in enrollment is a very difficult one and has not been treated with complete satisfaction under the tenure laws of most states. The principle that the last to come should be the first to go is accepted in some areas. In other states the courts have held that when there is a reduction in enrollment and it is necessary to drop teachers, the board of education should be expected to drop the least efficient teachers, irrespective of years of service. This means that no teacher has tenure when enrollment is declining. The conflict between seniority on the one hand and the efficient operation of the school system on the other has not been satisfactorily resolved.

Retirement Systems as an Aid to Better Instruction

School teachers, like other public employees, do not receive large salaries. They have family obligations and are expected to live in accordance with middle-class standards, yet their salary is usually below the average middle-class salary. It is difficult for teachers to accumulate sufficient savings to tide them through their old age. The provision of adequate pensions or retirement pay is an appropriate function of the state. Such provision relieves the teacher from anxiety and uncertainty about his economic future. He is free to devote his time and energy to professional problems, rather than to work to supplement his earnings in order to provide for his old age.

Most retirement systems call for contributions to a pension fund at

specified rates by the employee and by either the district or the state. Usually such pensions are a predetermined fraction of the average salary for the last few years of teaching. Occasionally they are on an actuarial basis.

Most pension systems need considerable improvement. They do not provide an adequate sum of money at the time of retirement. Investigations show that the pensions actually paid to teachers in the states with the best retirement provisions are small. A teacher with 32 years of service at 62 years of age, retiring July 1, 1951, with an average salary over the last five years of \$3000.00, would receive an annual pension of \$1590.00 in Illinois, \$1737.00 in California, and about \$1500.00 in New York or New Jersey. However, persons now on retirement pay receive much less than those sums. In Illinois there were 5084 persons receiving retirement allowances on June 30, 1950. The average monthly allowance of these people was \$72.65. One thousand seventy-two were drawing less than \$50.00 monthly; 3449 drew between \$50.00 and \$99.00; 515 received between \$100.00 and \$149.00; while only 47 received \$150.00 or more.

The provisions for custody and investment of pension funds need some improvement. Investments allowed or required under the laws are frequently restricted. A few states use pension funds to underwrite state bonds rather than spreading the risk geographically as well as over several types of investments.

There has been little consideration of the desirable relationship between federal social security and public pension systems. The slight consideration that has been made of this issue has not yet produced a satisfactory basis for interrelationship.

Teachers who have accumulated pension rights in one state and moved to another frequently find themselves at a disadvantage. Most states provide only limited credit for experience elsewhere. As a result, most pension systems operate to retain teachers who have accumulated substantial pension rights within the state.

Provision for Leaves as Aids to Getting Better Teachers

Leaves of absence usually available to teachers include those for sickness, attending professional meetings, religious or political purposes, study or travel, maternity, military service, and professional improvement. As a general principle of school law, no school district may grant any

leave of absence to a teacher unless the right to do so is specifically granted by the state or is implied in specific grants of authority.

Very few states require that particular leaves be granted. Anderson and MacCracken report in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*:

There is no conclusive evidence of the effect of any leave practice upon the effectiveness of the teachers concerned. Most recommendations and practices are based on logic. Teacher testimony is that they feel more effective after professional leaves of absence; supervisors make similar judgments. There is need for basic research in this field to find out just how much desirable student learning is furthered or obstructed by variations in practices relating to absences due to illness, absences for professional growth, and those that are for personal non-professional interests. Until the results of such research are available, the practices will be determined by the "common-sense" judgments of the school officials as influenced by the demands of the teachers.⁸

The common-sense requirements of school officials lead them to believe that cumulative sick pay is the most essential of the leaves mentioned above. Under this provision the teacher accumulates unused sick leave in order to make it available in subsequent years. In those states where cumulative sick leave is established by law, a specified maximum number of days may be accumulated. Provision for cumulative sick leave is possible in many states where it is not specified. Some states allow school districts to grant sabbatical leaves for travel, for professional study, or for rest and relaxation. When sabbatical leave is allowed for the latter purpose, the privilege is usually contingent upon having served for a substantial number of years. Application for sabbatical leave for professional improvement or for travel is usually considered after a shorter period, usually from five to ten years. Maternity leave is usually granted if married women are employed as teachers. A very few school districts providing such leaves limit the number of maternity leaves that may be secured. There are rather strict regulations governing the time when a teacher must apply for leave and the duration of leave.

⁸ Earl W. Anderson and J. Edward MacCracken, "Teacher Personnel—VIII. Sick Leaves and Leaves of Absence," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, pp. 1436-1438. Copyright 1950 by The Macmillan Company and used with their permission.

The Role of the Local Community in Getting the State to Improve the Quality of Teaching

Each local district has some responsibility for all of the children in the state. Whatever it finds that effects improvement in the teaching in its own schools may well improve teaching in other schools. This is particularly true when it has raised, or tried to raise, the minimum level of the quality of teaching. If each district is to have the best possible teachers, the laws of the state relating to the certification of teachers, granting of tenure, providing retirement, and providing leave must be the best possible.

Local organizations concerned with the improvement of education should affiliate with and work through state groups to improve state laws. ~~The~~ local parent-teacher association should encourage the state parent-teacher congress to take steps to improve legislation. The local school board should affiliate with the state school board association and work with it toward this same end. The local teachers' association should be affiliated with the state association for these purposes. But affiliation with state organizations is not enough. Legislation can be influenced by them, but it can also be influenced by action at the local level. Persons in the profession of education and others interested in the improvement of the schools should know local representatives in the state legislature. They should acquaint these representatives with the need for improvement in certification, tenure, retirement, leaves and the like. They should encourage their representatives to work to improve laws. In those states where initiative and referendum are used, communities alert to the necessity for improving legislation for the welfare of teachers will initiate appropriate measures or support them when they are initiated by others.

Staffing as Part of the Local Process of Implementing an Educational Program

The local school district can make important decisions within the laws of the state. Requirements of professional training, and work experience other than teaching, may be established. The district may wish to provide a variety of viewpoints toward social problems within the framework of a

common faith in democracy. It may have unique needs because of the kinds of people who live in it.

The administrator and the school board must ask themselves frequently: "What are the educational tasks in this school district?" "What professional training is required of people who are to fulfill these tasks best?" "What work experiences should they have had if they are to understand this community fully?" "What is the social orientation of the people on the staff, and what new orientation is needed to bring cross-fertilization from people of divergent points of view working together toward a common end?" "How can we secure divergent points of view within a common faith in the democratic process?" "What are the kinds of people in the community through whom teachers must work?" "What kinds of persons do we need to work with present teachers?" "What kind of staff do we have at present in terms of its cultural background, the institutions in which it received its pre-service training, its places of origin, its race, its religion, and so forth?"

Many of these questions are looked upon as outside the pale in considering the employment of personnel for a school system. This is because asking questions of this kind leaves one open to the charge of favoritism or of endeavoring to employ persons with particular points of view. A good faculty, however, needs to be made up of persons who are different in many respects. Catholics, Protestants, Jews, and members of other religious faiths should be brought together in a heterogeneous faculty in order that boys and girls may know through experience that good people exist in all faiths. It is equally important for boys and girls to have the experience of working with good teachers of many races so that they will learn to respect the dignity and accomplishments of man irrespective of ethnic background. It is important that teachers have broad experiences in many parts of the United States and bring these experiences to the classroom. Each institution of higher education tends to put a similar stamp on its graduates. It is desirable to select teachers who come from many different institutions of higher education so that the impact of their differences in training and in personality will impinge desirably upon the school system.

A major problem of educational leadership is getting the community to understand the necessity of selecting teachers who are competent in terms of the requirements of the state. But these teachers should also have the particular personal characteristics, social characteristics, and cultural

background that will enable them to bring appropriate diversity to the staff.

Suggested Reading

"Certification Policies and the National Emergency," *Journal of Teacher Education* (December, 1950). Policy statement of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards at Madison, Wisconsin, August, 1950.

J. M. Clifford, "New Social Security Act," *American School Board Journal* (November, 1950). A discussion of H.R. 6000 which became law in 1950 and extends social security to many new areas but not to teachers on pension and retirement plans. The author makes a brief but promising inquiry into what difficulties and implications this new social legislation holds for teachers.

H. Klonower, "Developing Techniques in Teacher Certification," *Educational Outlook* (January, 1949). A discussion of the various trends in the certification of teachers for public school teaching. The author is Director of Teacher Education and Certification for the State of Pennsylvania.

National Education Association, Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, *Teacher Tenure; Analysis and Appraisal*. The Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, headed by H. B. Allman, presents a useful summary rather than "analysis" or interpretation of: NEA's position on tenure, state variations on tenure laws, specific features in these laws. An appendix presents a state-by-state abstract of tenure laws.

National Education Association, Research Division, "Public-school Retirement at the Half Century," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association* (December, 1950). An excellent reference. In view of new social security trends and laws, teachers' pensions are to undergo revision and modification. This thorough investigation can help teachers, parents, and administrators anticipate and control events by supplying them with accurate information on the history of pensions to date, a review of some seventy-two retirements plans, how benefits are established, administrative difficulties, and a discussion of the future.

D. G. Ryans, *Comparing the Qualifications of Teachers*. A National Committee on Teacher Examinations Report, No. 11, which deals with ten factors for comparing teachers on probationary basis: professional information, subject-matter knowledge, mental abilities and skills, cultural background, professional interest, personal and social qualities, classroom rapport and skill, experience, training, and physical fitness.

D. G. Ryans, "Use of the National Teacher Examinations in School Systems," *Educational Administration and Supervision* (February, 1949). A

key person in the teacher-examination movement, the author explains at great length and detail the National Teacher Examinations he and others developed. There are careful explanations of their use and interpretation.

R. C. Woellner and M. A. Wood, *Requirements for Certification of Teachers, Counselors, Librarians, Administrators*. An annual publication (sixteenth edition, 1951) listing certification requirements for all forty-eight states and the U.S. possessions. Elementary, secondary, and junior college levels are covered. Every administrator should have it available when employing teachers from other than his own state.

Deciding on Personnel Policies: Staffing the Local Schools

CHAPTER 13

As was pointed out in Chapter 12, the personnel policies of a school district are established within a framework of laws, regulations, and established procedures. Some of these are made by the state and some by the local school district. In this chapter the problems of selecting, inducting, retaining, and terminating the services of members of the staff will be examined. In each instance it will be necessary to keep the general framework in mind, while fixing attention on a particular problem. The procedures and practices discussed are illustrative of what is possible in nearly every school district. However, the reader should check each against the laws of his own state. This is particularly true of the procedures presented under the section on terminating services. The school laws of the United States have much similarity, but there are significant differences from state to state. No practice can be said to be within the laws of an individual state without careful examination of state statutes.

Selecting Individual Members of the Staff

The People Who Select the Staff

Although the local board of education is legally responsible for selecting teachers, it is the superintendent of schools who recommends the person he believes best fitted for a position. If the board rejects his recommendation, it calls for another one. In some states a recommendation by the superintendent is legally required before an appointment can

be made. It is generally recognized that the selection of well-trained personnel is a highly skilled professional task. In addition, a board can hardly expect to hold an administrator responsible for results if it does not allow him great freedom in choosing those who will work under his leadership. So, in the final analysis, the new member of the staff should be chosen by the board upon recommendation of the superintendent of schools.

But there is much that must go on before this final stage is reached. Except in the very smallest districts, teachers must work with other teachers under the leadership of a principal. If the new teacher is to work harmoniously with his colleagues, he must fit easily into the established group. If the principal is to be held responsible for results in his school, then he, like the superintendent, should have a voice in selecting the persons whom he will lead. Parents and other residents of the area the school serves have various interests in the personality and training of teachers. If the new teacher is to be accepted by the community, he should be known to its people before he begins his work.

Few school systems have attempted to set up procedures for the selection of personnel which provide for participation by parents, principal, and staff. In larger school systems there are only infrequent provisions for participation by the principal in selecting the teachers who will be assigned to his building. Parents, principal, and staff can participate in developing job descriptions and in supplying information even though no procedure has been worked out for their participation in the final selective process. In theory, participation in final selection is widely accepted as desirable. In practice, it is used in only a few localities.

Probably it fails in operation because most systems for securing participation appear to be cumbersome and costly. It is impossible for any group to choose among persons whom they have not met. Teachers and those who are to choose among them must be brought together. This costs money. In some states there is grave question about the legality of spending public funds for the travel of persons not employed by the schools, whether they be candidates or lay members of a selection committee. And choosing a selection committee is not easy. There are usually no ready ways to find appropriate laymen for such a committee. If organizations such as the PTA are used, many parents, particularly fathers, are not active members and so are not included in the group from which choice is made. Such organizations do not usually include many persons who have

no children in school; yet some among these non-members might have excellent judgment about the fitness of a teacher for the community. Often the principal or superintendent knows what laymen would be good members of a selection committee; but if the membership is chosen by the school administration, it is frequently looked upon as a rubber stamp rather than as an agency with independent opinions.

In most school systems there is usually more than one vacancy to be filled, often more than one of a particular kind. If three teachers are needed for the first grade in three different schools, the superintendent and board wish to secure the best three persons. If there is to be full participation by the staff, principal, and parents or public of each school, each candidate will be seen by a large number of people. If one is outstandingly good, each of the three committees may well choose him. Yet two will be unable to have his services. And there is a real possibility that being subjected to great, varied, and prolonged scrutiny may convince the applicant that he does not wish to work in the district.

The problems of development and use of a selection committee have not yet been solved satisfactorily. In theory, broad participation by many persons who have the interests of children and of the community at heart will result in the selection of better personnel. The absence of good ways of using the theory does not invalidate it. The problem calls for the invention of ways that are theoretically sound and that will work in practice. Usable procedures which take into account all interests need to be developed, and the base of participation should be broadened as much as possible on each occasion for selection. In any event, the principal of the school in which the teacher is to work should always be given a voice in the selection of personnel. The use of teacher committees for the school district is a relatively simple step with few complications. The use of lay committees for the district, except when a district-wide position is open, is probably inadvisable. Such committees represent the same area as the board and probably add little the board does not already possess.

Preparation of the Job Description

In seeking professional personnel, what is wanted should be determined prior to seeing who is available. (This is in keeping with the separation of ends and means discussed in Chapter 8.) The preparation of a job description is a first step in selection of personnel. It provides the basis for

seeking individuals and it also provides those sought with a basis for determining their own fitness and desire for the position. The job description will consist of a general statement and a statement of specifics.

As Madeleine Dixon¹ has pointed out, the kinds of teachers to be selected depend upon the kind of schools the district wishes to develop. The prospective member of the staff should understand fully the basic philosophy of the school system. There is grave risk in offering a job to a person who does not accept these concepts. A good job description begins with a succinct statement of what the school believes to be good education.

A second general point to be covered is what the teacher's function is conceived to be. Does the school system expect him to deal with individual differences, assume guidance responsibilities, increase the learner's knowledge of the world, relate the school to the culture of the community, use a wide range of materials and methods, and understand and practice democracy? If the school system does look upon these as appropriate functions of the teacher, in whatever position he is employed, then the job description should so state.

A third general point is the kind of person whom the district seeks. A teacher should really love children. He should like teaching. He should be personally secure. He should have self respect, dignity, and courage. He should be able to identify with children, be emotionally stable, be free from anxiety, and give himself freely and without reserve to the needs and interests of his pupils. He should enjoy living and working with others. He should be a creative person who is willing to accept the responsibilities of his job and who will continue to grow professionally. He should be friendly, sympathetic, patient, and intelligent. He should have a sense of humor, a neat appearance, and a pleasing voice. If the school district believes that the teacher should have these human qualities, they should be stated fully in the general job specifications.

The general parts of job specifications should come from the careful thinking of many persons. Teachers, principals, and parents should participate in developing them. They should be the subject of discussion at teachers' meetings in individual buildings, at meetings of teacher organizations, at meetings of parent-teacher associations, and at meetings of lay groups. Every opportunity should be taken to make sure that state-

¹ Madeleine Dixon, "Selecting Teachers for a School System," *The School Executive* (March, 1948), pp. 11-14.

ments of the philosophy of the schools, the functions of the teacher, and the personality of the teacher reflect the considered opinion of the profession and of the community.

When these statements are in final form, they should be adopted by the board as the official policy of the school district. But such adoption should not mean that there will not be periodic reviews of the statements as conditions change and new ideas come forward.

The specifications for the job follow the general statements. They should be stated in full detail. Items usually included are the age, sex, marital status, and professional training expected of each candidate. An age requirement is far better than an experience one, for it can be varied readily to fit the needs of a particular school. Wise planning calls for a wide range of age in a faculty of any size. It is unwise to have so many in any age bracket as to result in large numbers of persons leaving the school within any short period of time because of retirement, marriage, or other reason. Each faculty also needs a balanced distribution of men and women so that children can have adequate experience with teachers of both sexes. The same is true of married and single men and women—although, if the district does not dismiss women who marry, time will usually produce a desirable distribution in most schools.

The professional training needed for particular jobs should be stated only after careful study. If, for example, reading is taught to beginners through the use of experience charts rather than a published reading system, teachers who are employed in the first grade must have been trained to teach in this way. If teacher-pupil planning is expected, then teachers must have been trained to use this technique. A statement of the professional training should go beyond semester hours of subject matter. It should state specifically what training in what areas is desired.

For some jobs, notably in vocational teaching, work experience is required. It is desirable in many other types of positions. A good job description lists the kinds of work experience, other than teaching, that are required of a candidate. Occasionally teachers will be needed who can lead particular extra-curricular activities that call for experience in working with people in dramatics, handicraft, social service, or other fields. This type of experience, if required, should be described accurately.

Although forbidden in some states by the so-called Fair Employment Practice acts, it is the opinion of the authors that race, religion, social class, cultural background, and political philosophy should all be taken

into account. This nation has a heterogeneous population which migrates freely from state to state and from region to region. The child will come to understand fully that Catholics, Jews, Protestants, and people of no specific religious affiliation have much in common as people when he is associated with them. If he is to learn that intelligence, love of teaching, and affection for children are found under skins of any color, then he must have experience with people of many colors. So it goes through the entire list. That faculty is probably best which is intentionally designed to include teachers from as many different backgrounds as possible, providing it is also selected on the basis of ability to work well together. When these factors are used to include persons, rather than to exclude them, they have real value in the education of children. The fact that they have usually been used for the wrong purposes should not prevent their being used for the right ones.

Some school systems give preference to local candidates. If this is the practice, it should be stated in the specifications. But the practice is reprehensible. Snyder² studied inbreeding in nine cities in New York state. He defined a local teacher as one who had attended the secondary school in the city in which he is now teaching. His findings are summarized as follows:

A composite picture of the status of the residence groups with respect to the traits studied indicates that the non-resident teacher is more likely than the resident teacher to be male or a woman high-school teacher or a special teacher; to be married, if a woman; to be a graduate of a normal school or college, perhaps holding a Master's degree; to have taken at least one summer, extension, or correspondence course during the preceding seven years; to have between six and twenty years experience, including service in at least one other community; to be a member of the National Education Association; to have travelled outside of the United States or to the Pacific Coast; to have exercised creative professional leadership sufficient to have the recognition of colleagues in other schools and communities as evidenced by addresses before professional meetings, articles in educational journals, and innovations in method or curriculum; and, if a teacher of less than three years' experience, to have received a high rating from the superintendent.

The local teacher, on the other hand, is more likely than the non-local teacher to be a woman; to teach in an elementary school; to be married; to have less than a two-year normal diploma; to be a young teacher of five years' experience or less, or to have served more than twenty years;

² Harold E. Snyder, *Educational Inbreeding* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943.)

to have taught only in the home community; to belong to professional organizations other than the National Education Association or the state or local teachers' associations; to have travelled within the United States principally within areas immediately adjacent to the home state; and to have received a low rating from the superintendent, if a teacher of less than three years' experience.⁸

This evidence shows clearly what preference for local teachers would have produced in the nine cities studied. If the types of teachers desired fit the above description of the local teacher as compared with the non-local one, then specifying residence is a sure way to secure them.

In addition to the job description, which is for the information of prospective employees and placement agencies, the administrator will wish to have certain information about each applicant in order to make wise choices: a transcript of the college record; records of activities in which the applicant has participated as a student, as a member of the community, and as a teacher; employment record; hobbies, musical and other artistic interests, unusual interests, recreational activities, travel; and health records.

Sources of Information about Prospective Teachers

When a vacancy occurs in a school system, the administrator must turn to some source of supply in order to secure the names of persons who might be qualified to fill it. In general, there are five such places: applications on file in the superintendent's office, teachers' agencies, placement offices of colleges and universities, placement offices of professional organizations, and placement offices of state departments of education.

Local Files. Many schools provide application forms to those wishing to seek positions on the local school staff. The application files of the local school district should be restricted to material not over two years old. Experience has shown that many of the applicants are no longer interested in a position after that length of time. It is not worth-while to keep old records on file unless requested to do so. The person through whom application forms are secured should state this policy to each applicant. The form should also contain a statement of the policy. Although such forms provide for listing people for reference, usually the actual requests for references are made only when there is a vacancy. This procedure

⁸ *Ibid*, pp. 104-105. Used by permission.

avoids filling the files with material that may not be used. It also means that the information secured is up-to-date and that it relates to the position for which the applicant is being considered. Again, it is wise to make this policy known to applicants. In any large school system the local files represent a source which has the advantages of containing information pertinent to the positions open and of being up to date. The major disadvantage is that the applications tend to come from a restricted geographical area.

Teachers Agencies. The United States Office of Education reported in 1947 that there were more than eighty private placement agencies through which teachers might be secured. Most of these agencies charge a small fee for registration and a percentage of the first years' salary when the applicant accepts a position about which he received notice from the agency. Each agency has an application form that contains those items of information which, in its experience, have been most commonly requested by employers. Since it is in business to make a profit, it attempts to supply the information employers want, in order to place the most possible registrants. Some people have felt that pressure to make profit leads commercial agencies to eliminate from the files material unfavorable to the applicant. No evidence for or against the present existence of such practice is available. Many such agencies have been in existence for many years and have served school administrators repeatedly. Many of them take great pride in their professional honesty and believe that they can contribute much by careful screening of applicants prior to recommending a few for interviews. This screening is of value. The disadvantage of the private agency is that statements of reference are general, rather than directed to the needs of a particular position, and that often they are not recent.

Institutional Placement Offices. Nearly every institution of higher education which trains teachers accepts some responsibility for placing them. The service rendered varies markedly from institution to institution. In the best, the information on file about registrants is what the institution finds to be most important to success on the job, plus any other information found to be desired by employers. It will usually have somewhat better information on hand about its registrants than will the private

agency, but what it has is not likely to be up to date except for members of the current graduating class. Like the private agency, the institutional one is obligated to place as many of its registrants as possible. It does not do this for profit, but because placement is a way to draw students, to have influence on education, to justify its existence. There is no evidence that these motives have led agencies to depart from high professional standards. Most of the agencies in colleges and universities will screen candidates prior to the interview with the prospective employing agent. Most of them will give careful attention to the individual needs of particular positions when these needs are defined clearly in the job specification.

Placement Services of Professional Organizations. State educational associations and some professional organizations maintain placement services. Many of these are relatively new ventures. They are designed to secure positions for members. Registration is usually free, although in a few instances there is a small charge to cover the clerical cost of compiling credentials. These agencies vary so greatly in staff, size, financial support, and policy that it is impossible to generalize about them. The tendency for the organized profession to accept some responsibility for placing its members is good. The administrator should encourage this tendency by using these agencies to whatever extent he finds possible. When their shortcomings or their good points are evident, he should make them known to the organization so that the placement service may continue to improve.

Placement Services of State Education Departments. It is equally difficult to generalize about placement offices in state departments of education. Fewer than half of the states provide such service to the schools. Where it is provided, it is usually without cost to the registrant. Where the person in charge of the agency is free from political influence and can operate on a professional basis, the service rendered will compare favorably with that of private agencies or of those in institutions of higher education.

The Induction of the New Teacher into the School System

Housing

Coming into a new community always involves uncertainties. The newcomer does not know what areas will be congenial. He does not know how people will receive him. He does not know where he is going to live. Finding a home is a first responsibility. And the school system can begin to make him feel that he is really a part of it by giving him assistance in this task.

Locating living places for teachers is a neighborhood task. Each school can help. The principal, the staff, the parent-teacher organization, and the students can work together. Plans can be made for an annual canvass of the neighborhood to locate rooms for single teachers who wish them, apartments and houses for rent, and houses for sale. The cost and condition of each should be noted and collected in a central file in the school district. Appropriate news stories of the way in which citizens who do not usually take roomers are helping out will give an added impetus to the campaign. News stories about the arrival of new teachers and their families, with emphasis upon what was done to help them with housing, give recognition both to teachers and to people who have helped them.

The new teacher should be informed by a friendly letter of the services the school district can give in helping to find housing. He should be informed about where he can get this information when he arrives, and should be asked to state his needs in detail so that there can be a preliminary examination of available places and a selection made for him to visit. If he requests that one of the available places be reserved for him, this should be done with gracious reluctance. A home is too personal to be selected by an outsider except in very unusual circumstances.

When the school district accepts the responsibility of helping find housing, it should check with both landlord and teacher to make sure that both are satisfied. Information of importance in future housing of teachers can be secured in this way. This information should be kept on file in the central office for use when needed.

In some states the law provides that school districts may own teacherages to provide rooms or apartments for staff members. Permissive

legislation in a few states also makes legal district ownership of single-family dwellings for staff use. In general, such laws were adapted to solve housing problems in rural areas where private development of rental properties seems unwarranted.

Getting Acquainted with Co-workers

The staff of the individual school has major responsibility for assisting new teachers in becoming acquainted with their colleagues. Help is desirable in learning routine procedures, understanding where people and things can be found, knowing the circumstances under which special help can be secured, and knowing who is who in the administrative staff as well as in the school. One way to provide this help is to assign a teacher as guide and counselor to each newcomer. Occasionally a committee is used for this purpose. Sometimes a small group of teachers will volunteer, and the new teacher is free to go to any of them. This latter procedure appears to work the best. It avoids giving official responsibility for one person to another and thus allows interpersonal relationships to develop naturally. It does require committee meetings, so frequently bothersome to teachers. It is based upon the desire to help.

If the school system has more than one school, a tour of the schools and the office of the superintendent is indicated. This should be accomplished during part of the working time of the teacher, as it is important that he see other schools when they are in session. In visiting the central office, time should be allowed for more than a superficial and formal greeting. If the system is too large for the superintendent to spend time with each new teacher, then the officer responsible for the school or the area in which the teacher is employed should do this. The general superintendent can meet the new teachers in groups.

There is no reason why persons who work together should feel obligated to play together. Probably teachers, more than most groups, find a majority of their friends among those with whom they work. But a new teacher should not be made to feel that he must become part of the social groups of the school staff. If, when he has the opportunity to do so, he wishes to find fun and relaxation with his colleagues, this should be as appropriate as when he wishes to seek his personal friends in other circles. The teachers with whom he works should help him become acquainted with community groups, appropriate religious and fraternal

organizations, hobby clubs, and other persons or agencies with whom he might enjoy spending leisure time. He should feel free to choose as he wishes among various programs without pressure from his fellow workers.

Becoming Acquainted with the Community

Learning what to do for relaxation and where to do it is part of becoming acquainted with the community, but there is much more that is important. The teacher must be helped to know the class structure, the ways in which people earn a living, the nature of residential districts, merchandising procedures of retail stores, banks, governmental structure, political organizations, labor organizations, and many other facets of a modern community used by the good teacher in his classes as well as in his daily life.

In the good school district the community has been studied frequently by students and teachers. Source material about it is accumulated in libraries and classrooms. Annually, this material is reviewed and brought up-to-date by new classes of students. It is but a small step from the use of this material by students to the compilation of a brochure or pamphlet. Publications of the chamber of commerce, the tourist bureau, or some similar organization can frequently be included with the brochure in an informational kit for new teachers. Frequently, also, business houses have material that will be helpful to teachers. If selection is made on the basis of helpfulness, the presence of advertising of a product or a service is irrelevant.

Reading about a community is helpful, but seeing it is better. A series of tours can be planned which will provide opportunities to see the community in action. Again, in the good school system, each school uses tours so that students may come to know and understand the place in which they live. It is not difficult to replan these tours so that they will be of assistance to teachers. These trips can take place when school is not in session, but it is probably better to give them the importance that comes with their occurrence on school time.

In larger communities, the community chest, industrial plants, department stores, governmental agencies, and some other organizations provide information through planned tours. These can be used if they fit into the schedule. If they do not, they can be called to the attention of the teacher so that he may use them if he wishes.

Getting new teachers acquainted with the community can become a project of real value. Guides on tours may be laymen. A committee on which there is substantial lay membership can select material for an information kit and do the overall planning of the program. Here is a chance for everyone to work together. The wise administrator, seeking always for situations in which laymen can work with teachers in a natural relationship, will use the induction of new teachers into the community as an excellent area for coöperation.

Learning the Rules and Regulations

Finding housing and inducting teachers into the community are responsibilities of the whole people. Making sure that teachers understand the rules and regulations is the responsibility of the school administrator. The importance of a clear understanding of the rules cannot be overestimated. Such rules are the basic contract between the school district and its employees. Whatever rules are in effect at the time of employment, or at the time of signing a new contract, are effective and binding upon the employee. The contract usually bears a statement to this effect, but even if it does not, the rules are binding. They are made by a public body at a public meeting. They are a matter of public record in the minutes of the board; so they can be presumed to be known to each teacher. This presumption is frequently contrary to the fact, but it will usually hold up in court.

But good working relationships are not built upon legal assumptions, no matter how valid these assumptions may be to a judge, nor how necessary they are to the just and equitable operation of the law. The rules should be communicated to each teacher in such manner that they are fully understood. And this means knowing what happens under each rule, as well as knowing what the rule says. A teacher may be able to repeat a rule and not understand what it means until it has been used in connection with him. If he expects one kind of action and gets another, then he will be unhappy. This can be avoided by careful advance explanation.

The individual school is not an appropriate place to make a teacher aware of the full meaning of the rules and regulations. In most school systems the final interpretation of a rule is made in the superintendent's office, frequently in consultation with the attorney for the board. The explanation of the rules to new teachers should take place wherever this

interpretation is made, and should be presented by whoever makes the interpretation. Teachers should be encouraged to ask many questions. Many specific cases should be presented so that each teacher will understand what the rules mean in use. Such meetings, while planned primarily for new teachers, should be open to any others who wish to know more about the rules and regulations.

In addition, teachers should be encouraged to come to the central office when they are in doubt about the meaning of a rule. Misunderstanding can be prevented if teachers secure an official interpretation before acting. Questions of this nature are welcomed by the wise administrator.

Understanding the Philosophy of the School

A full understanding of the philosophy of the school system does not come quickly. Living and working within the system for a period of time is the only way to complete comprehension of what its goals really are. But living is most fruitful when awareness of relationships is coupled with a sense of direction. The school system can do much to assist in the growth of awareness and the recognition of purposes.

Most school systems have at one time or another attempted to state both what they intended to accomplish and the types of relationships they believe will be most effective in reaching these ends. A statement of objectives has been the traditional first step in the improvement of the educational program. Philosophies of education have been written by committees of teachers as starting points for courses of study. It is quite probable that careful search of the files in nearly every superintendent's office will produce at least one. Such statements can be the beginning point. Each new teacher should be provided with the latest pronouncement of the school system about its goals.

The individual school is the best place to begin developing an understanding of what these goals mean in practice. Observing the treatment of children; use of materials; extension of the school into the community; use of the community as a resource for the school; coöperation among parents, teachers, administration, and students—in short, becoming aware of the interaction that takes place as the school educates its pupils helps to broaden and deepen comprehension of ends. If the observation is to be most helpful, relations between ends and means

ought to be apparent. Other teachers can point out these relationships. A school staff which is itself aware of the importance of understanding where education is leading can be most effective in helping the new teacher.

But the staff cannot do the job alone. Each new teacher needs some task which influences the program of the school. The greatest value in revising a curriculum is change in the teachers who do the work. Through such involvement comes a fuller realization of what a philosophy is, what is needed to put it into practice, and what it means in use. Every school activity has philosophical implications. Without teaching value concepts, it is impossible to set up procedures for as simple a task as clearing uneaten food from the tables in the cafeteria. Ideas about what is good influence all decisions. If the good is to be understood, it must be used in making decisions. So, placing new teachers in positions where they, in cooperation with colleagues of longer service, can assist in the development of practice will assist them to understand philosophy. Here, as in other activities, the more experienced teachers will refer to the philosophy and attempt to relate practice to it only if they have learned to do so.

The school administrator is the key person in creating the atmosphere in which people habitually consider action in relation to philosophy and attempt to relate means and ends. As he does this himself and expects others to do it when he is working with them, he becomes an effective leader in an essential and difficult process. What is done for the new teacher will depend more upon the way in which the system operates in respect to its philosophy than to any other single factor. And for this operation the administrator is uniquely responsible.

Retention of the Staff

After the new teacher has been inducted, he will remain at work as long as he finds the situation pleasant and the rewards satisfying. Many of the rewards are not material ones. In the good school system teachers are made to feel that what they do is important. They are commended for contributions to community life and to the education of boys and girls. They have opportunities both for pleasant relaxation and for profitable professional improvement. The general social atmosphere of the community and school are of great importance. There are, in addition,

specific factors which impinge severely upon the teacher and which will help in retaining him if they are handled properly. These are divided into two general categories: first, the improvement of pay; second, the improvement of the conditions that affect the work of the teacher.

Improvement of Pay

The establishment of salary policy for a school district is an important basic step toward good education. The rate of pay, the amount and number of increases, conditions under which they are earned, classifications within a salary schedule, and the ultimate salary paid determine to a significant degree the number and kind of teachers who will be attracted to and retained by a school district. This section of the chapter does not describe good salary schedules of various types. The preparation of a salary schedule is a highly technical problem. It is treated adequately in specialized books upon the subject.

Sound salary policy arises after issues are considered fully by those most concerned with the results. Teachers are concerned with salary policy because what they are paid is determined by it. Parents are concerned because the quality of the staff which is to teach their children is so profoundly affected by salary policy. Taxpayers are concerned, even though they are not parents, because salary policy helps determine the amount of the school tax. The board of education is concerned because it must administer the policy. The superintendent of schools is concerned both as the executive officer of the board and as the professional leader of the teachers.

There is an essential element of conflict among the roles played by these various interested parties. Workers of any kind like to receive as much pay as possible. Taxpayers generally like to pay as little tax as possible. Parents find themselves occasionally in the quandary of wanting better teachers but not wanting to pay higher taxes. Boards of education, even when willing to support requests for more pay for teachers, are at times reluctant to support requests for the additional taxes necessary to increase pay. The administrative staff of the schools, and particularly the superintendent, are frequently in the position of wishing to see that teachers receive more pay, but also of being acutely aware of the financial condition of the district and the limitations on its ability to pay. Procedures established to bring these various groups together

to consider wise salary policy in order to recommend it to the board for adoption should recognize the existence of this conflict.

In a pamphlet of the American Education Fellowship, entitled *Organizing for Teacher Welfare*, the problem of conflict within the power structure of the school system is discussed.

The hierarchical organization of power evolves from the legal structure of school systems. An examination of different systems will reveal that the amount of power possessed by any one level in the hierarchy varies markedly from community to community. There is no sound basis for assuming that the typical distribution of power has any logical basis. It appears, rather, to have evolved without plan, and with little critical examination.

Within such a hierarchy, conflicts inevitably arise as individuals in groups try to secure the necessary power to improve their lot. The existence of conflict is not surprising, but its persistence without resolution over long periods of time should cause concern to the profession. Teachers have complained for years about their rate of pay, their hours of work, their class load, their duties at noontime, their extracurricular assignments, their sick leave, and other problems which are closely related to their work. Except for recent increases in pay (which have hardly kept pace with the cost of living), few changes have occurred to improve working conditions, and complaints about them continue to occur.

The persistence of unsatisfactory working conditions produces so much unrest and tension that, in many school systems, it is difficult to secure genuine professional coöperation. This is a major reason for examining the conditions which affect the work of teachers, the conflicts and tensions arising out of these conditions, and proposing ways in which conflicts may be resolved and conditions improved. Until steps toward these ends have been taken, there appears to be little hope for much coöperative professional effort in most of the school systems of the nation.

Boyd Bode has defined democracy as that system of relationships among people which leads to resolving conflict by expanding the area of agreement. While no single sentence can be completely definitive of democracy, elements in his definition are closely related to the problems under scrutiny. Much has been written and more said about the needs for democratic school administration. Some reasonably successful attempts to develop this kind of relationship have been made, but they are few in number. In most communities administration takes place within the typical hierarchy of power. In typical situations the area of agreement is expanded by the beneficent acts of the superintendent, rather than through coöperation. Only a naive person would expect coöperative relationships to arise when the bulk of the power is in the hands of one party. In such cases, the weaker party must rely solely upon the good will of the stronger, and

good will tends to be ephemeral. If genuinely coöperative relationships are to develop in any system, those who are expected to be parties in them must be invested with equal power. When this is done, conflict cannot result in progress since neither has the strength to overcome the other. Coöperation or an armed truce are the only alternatives.

Much of the present dissatisfaction among teachers comes because they lack the power to improve their working conditions. They have spent time and effort in acquiring professional skills which they cannot use because classrooms are overcrowded, equipment is inadequate, and rest periods are too brief. Their frustration is increased and prolonged by the feeling that there is nothing which they can do to help themselves. They must seek a dispensation from someone in authority.

This pamphlet proposes means of distributing power within a school system so that teachers will have the strength to become coöperative participants in the process of improving their working conditions. When these have been improved, they will no longer be a source of persistent conflict which retards, if it does not inhibit, the use of the total professional resources of the school system. The skills in coöperative interaction which they and the administration acquire as they seek to improve teacher welfare will produce a better design for public education when they are applied to this end.⁴

If teachers are to have power to meet administrators, members of the school board, and the public on an equal basis, it is highly desirable that their local organizations be strong and well supported. The wise administrator will encourage teachers to develop strong local organizations among whose major purposes are the improvement of the pay and of the working conditions of teachers. It is probably undesirable for administrators to be members of such organizations. This does not mean that teachers and administrators cannot be members of organizations concerned with the improvement of programs of education generally. Mutual membership in such organizations is desirable.

Representatives of teachers organizations should have major responsibility for initiating proposals for salary policy. Administrators should recognize that the primary interest in salary policy is with the employees. Teachers should be encouraged to secure the necessary information to present wise recommendations of policy, to secure the opinions of parents and other citizens, and to know what the administrative staff

⁴ Spalding, *et al.*, *Organizing for Teacher Welfare*, American Education Fellowship Service Center Pamphlets (The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1952). Used by permission.

thinks is advisable. After all of this has been done, teacher representatives should be free to present whatever proposals of policy seem to them to be best.

The administrator is a professional employee of the board of education. It is his duty to give carefully prepared professional opinion about proposals for salary policy to the board. He should present such careful analysis of the proposals of teachers as will insure complete understanding by citizens and by the board, and he should indicate the extent to which he agrees. No policy should be adopted that has implications for future payments not clearly understood at the time of adoption. It is highly desirable, therefore, for the administrative staff to project the salary schedule until such time as it will reach maximum total cost to the school district and to project the income of the school district over the same period of time. At whatever points additional income is necessary, the report should indicate the legal means by which such income can be secured. Finally, the administrator should state whether or not he recommends the adoption of the policy proposed by the teachers.

Parents and other citizens should be continuously informed of the progress of teachers who are working on salary policy. Their opinions and suggestions should be secured. The presence of laymen at the meeting of the board of education when recommendations are to be presented and discussed should be encouraged. Such meetings should be widely announced, and it may be appropriate for board members and teachers to urge representative citizens to be present. Laymen should be given time to present their points of view in respect to the policy, either endorsing it, criticizing it, rejecting it, or saying whatever else they please about it.

Before making a decision the board should have before it the recommendation of salary policy that originated with the employees, the professional recommendation and analysis of the superintendent of schools, and the opinions and suggestions of laymen present at meetings. A sub-committee of the board with the help of designated teachers and other representative citizens may be given the task of analysis, further investigation, and the making of recommendations. If these various points of view seem to be closely in harmony, the board can then proceed to adopt a policy that has been recommended. If they are not in harmony, as is often the case, the board should adopt a procedure for collective bargaining. Usually it is desirable to appoint the superin-

tendent of schools as the board's representative to bargain with a committee of teachers. If they are unable to reach an agreement, the superintendent should so inform the board. The teachers can then bargain directly with the board, and the board can make the final decision.

It is inadvisable to indicate in detail what good salary policy is, since this must necessarily vary from district to district. But there are certain basic principles which should control in developing a salary schedule. These principles are stated well in a publication of the Illinois Association of School Boards, entitled *Salary Schedules for Teachers*. This publication includes the following principles:

1. The principle of salary classifications:

The adoption of a schedule for teacher salaries presupposes that certain salary classes must be established and that the basis for determining the class of each member of the profession should be a matter of public record. . . . The major purpose of the salary schedule, that of procuring more effective instructional service and in return a more adequate program of education for the community, has already been mentioned. It follows then that the basis for designating the salary classification of each teacher should be determined only by those factors which have a direct bearing on the teacher's professional competency.

2: The principle of the basic wage:

A salary schedule should provide a wage which will enable teachers to live respectably in the community, to meet their obligations as members of society, and to provide for continued professional improvement. . . The basic wage should be placed at a level which will attract that quality of teaching which the community in question can afford or desires.

3. The principle of wage increments:

The policy of providing salary increments is an essential feature of any salary schedule designed to promote maximum professional growth among the largest number of staff members. . . There seems to be common agreement among educators that teaching experience and continued professional training are the two major factors which must be considered in determining salary increases.

4. The principle of the maximum wage:

All professionals would receive compensation determined by the basic beginning wage plus the increments. . . A desirable maximum wage will

serve to attract promising candidates to the community and will be a vital factor in promoting in-service improvement and retention.

5. The principle of job specification:

This principle is particularly helpful in determining a fair wage scale between the different levels of service. It is not uncommon, for example, for teachers to question the existing differences in salary between their group and supervisory or administrative groups. When such factors as the place of the position in the line of authority, the responsibility of the position, the experience and training required of the person who fills the position, and the degree of initiative and resourcefulness required, are used to fix the relative pay for teaching, administrative, and supervisory positions, the differential between these service levels can be explained in fairly clear terms.

6. The principle of flexibility:

The schedule in its final form must be reasonably flexible to meet the emergencies which will arise with respect to financial support and personnel problems over which the staff members have little control.⁵

These are excellent principles to keep in mind when considering salary policy.

Improvement in Working Conditions

The working conditions of teaching are usually considered to include pupil-teacher ratio or teaching load, extracurricular activities, physical facilities of the school building, materials provided for teaching, leaves of various kinds, retirement, ways of keeping up professionally, and opportunities for changes in assignment and promotion.

It is not the purpose of this chapter to give in detail the precise kinds of formulas that can be used for determining load, the best set of rules and regulations for governing various kinds of leaves, sample and ideal retirement provisions, procedures for in-service training, plans for keeping up professionally, or rules and regulations governing opportunities for changes in assignment. These problems have been subject to considerable study, and detail on them can be found elsewhere. However, in respect to each of these major items of working conditions, some principles should be kept in mind.

⁵ Illinois Association of School Boards, *School Board Reference Library, No. 4, Salary Schedules for Teachers* (1946), pp. 12-18. Used by permission.

Load. The professionally trained individual is responsible for the quality of the relationship between himself and the persons whom he serves. If he is to use his skill wisely, he is the individual to determine how many persons he can serve at one time. This is one of the characteristics of a profession. When the members of a profession are employed, their right to determine how many people they can effectively serve is frequently abridged by the employing agency. Teachers and administrators should be zealous to protect the right of professionally trained people to determine how they can use their professional training to the best advantage of children. It is most inappropriate for a board of education or an administrator to expect a quality of performance from professionally trained people which they themselves believe cannot be given with the number of persons assigned to them.

A professionally trained person should also be the one to decide the kinds of activities he is qualified to carry on. Assignments of clubs, plays, athletic teams, or other extracurricular activities to a teacher should be made only when a teacher is himself sure that he is professionally competent to carry them on and that he can do the work as part of his daily load. The right to state how a person can use his professional skills most effectively should not be abridged by the fact that he is employed by others rather than self-employed.

Leaves. Leaves are intended to assist teachers in securing personal and professional improvement so that they will be more effective in their work with boys and girls. Rules and regulations governing leave should produce the kind of improvement the district believes desirable, and also help to retain the kinds of teachers the district wishes to have. Leaves which help up-grade persons, and also retain them, are those for study, for travel, for visiting other school systems, or for exchange with teachers from other school districts or from foreign countries. Leaves designed primarily to retain teachers, but with some up-grading function, are maternity leaves, sick leaves, and also leaves for rest and recuperation after long periods of service, such as twenty to twenty-five years.

Retirement Provisions. Provisions of state retirement systems were discussed in Chapter 12 as one of the inducements to individuals to enter and remain in teaching. In general, retirement provisions should

include a method whereby a married teacher may secure retirement allowance for a dependent spouse. They should include an adequate minimum pension, not entirely dependent on the rate of pay of the individual. Larger pensions should be computed on the basis of earnings and should be determined actuarially. The local school district can do little alone about pension provisions. It can do much by working with other school districts and with the profession in order to improve them at the state level.

Changes in Assignment and Promotions. The procedure for requesting changes of assignment should be available and known to all teachers. When such changes are made, all teachers should understand the procedures by which they were accomplished. Formulation of such procedures should be arrived at after thorough discussion of the issue with the teachers of the district. The same is true of promotion procedures. No school system wishes to fill all its administrative and supervisory positions by promotion from within. This produces intellectual sterility. It should be equally careful not to fill all its positions from without. This frustrates the good people on the staff and makes them feel that there is no opportunity to get ahead by staying in the system. A good balance between selection from within and selection from without is desirable. In any case, the basis for selection should be clear and the procedure understood widely.

Keeping up Professionally. Rules and regulations governing keeping up professionally include those that encourage persons to study or travel during the vacation periods, while on leave, or, occasionally, in late afternoon or evening classes. They also include the school systems' programs for in-service training. Frequently these two elements of professional improvement are confused. It would be far better if the term "in-service training" were confined to help given by the administrative and supervisory staff so that employees may be able to do better those things that the district expects them to do in line with their assignments. Professional improvement can then be defined as what an employee does on his own initiative in order to improve his professional skills. A good set of rules and regulations recognizes the difference between these two means of professional improvement. The responsibility for a good in-service training program rests with the administrative staff. The responsi-

bility for a good program of professional improvement rests with individual teachers. This does not mean that there cannot be coöperative planning with respect to both aspects. It does mean, however, that whatever procedure is used to set up the program in each area must place the ultimate responsibility for the success or failure of the program on the appropriate persons.

Working conditions, like pay, are properly subject to the procedure of collective bargaining. The alert administrator will, of course, seek to improve working conditions so that teachers will be more effective and more contented while they work. The alert teacher organization will similarly try to improve working conditions in order that boys and girls may live and learn more effectively. In general, the procedure mentioned above for improvement of salary policy is a good procedure for improving working conditions; the role of the school board, teacher, professional staff, and the public being similar in both instances.

Termination of Services

Termination by Death, Resignation, or Retirement

The services of staff members are terminated through resignation, retirement, death, and dismissal. The death of a teacher who has been receiving little pay usually causes some financial strain and distress for the family. It is desirable for the school district to do what it can to ease the situation. If the laws of the state allow it, a death payment can be included in the contractual agreement between the teacher and the school district and a small sum, such as \$300.00 or \$400.00, made available to a beneficiary of the teacher.

Teachers from time to time wish to resign to marry, to take positions elsewhere, or for other personal reasons. The rules governing resignations should require reasonable notice from the teacher. In general, no school system gains much by retaining against his will a teacher who wishes to resign. Some laws make this possible, but neither the children nor the teacher who works with them will profit from a compulsory relationship.

Most persons who retire from school systems after long periods of service have taught many persons who are living in the community.

Some type of public recognition is often arranged. In general, neither the administrator nor the school board should be the active agency in planning banquets, gifts, and the like. If these occur, they should be genuine responses to the sincere love and affection which the community has for the teacher. The school board, however, should recognize teachers' services at the time of retirement. A carefully prepared scroll with its contents officially recorded on retirement is an excellent formal device.

Termination by Dismissal

Dismissal occurs under two entirely different kinds of situations: (1) while the teacher is on probation, and (2) while the teacher is under tenure. These are so markedly different that they must be dealt with separately.

Dismissal during Probationary Period. The purpose of a probationary period prior to tenure is to allow the school district to observe the teacher at work and to determine whether or not it wishes to retain him. At the same time the teacher has an opportunity to observe the school system as it operates and to determine whether or not he wishes to remain in it. Under most conditions no reasons for dismissal during the probationary period are legally required, but it is nevertheless desirable to have them.

Part of the problem of dismissing a teacher during the probationary period is solved if the meaning and purpose of a probationary period are understood by both parties at the time of beginning employment. The teacher should understand that the district does not seek teachers able to do average work, but those whose ability is distinctly superior. Termination of employment during the probationary period is not an indication of failure, but rather an indication of not meeting a high standard of expectancy.

The teacher should know what individuals are expected to judge his performance. Usually the principal of the school has the major responsibility. Some school districts operate on the theory that the supervisory staff should not judge the quality of any teachers but should be a resource available to them whenever they need help. Idealistically this is desirable. In practice, however, there is an informal channel of communication among supervisors, principals, and superintendents so that

the opinion of the supervisor does influence the final decision'. It is probably better to have the channel open and recognized rather than informal and undercover.

If the performance of the teacher is to be judged accurately during the probationary period, it must be observed frequently by the persons who will be deciding whether or not the teacher should be retained. If judging is to be accurate, it is important that it be in terms of the best performance. A teacher should decide when he is doing his best work and invite those who judge him to come and observe it. At the same time a teacher has the responsibility of recognizing when he is doing his poorest work and should invite professional assistance so that he may improve in these areas. The occasions for judgment should be distinctly separate from the occasions for professional assistance requiring observation of teaching weaknesses. After a visit for the purpose of judging performance, the persons judging should acquaint the teachers with their opinions of his accomplishments. These should be discussed frankly and a record kept of them, with a copy given to the teacher.

At the end of each year of the probationary period, the principal of the school is usually expected to make a formal recommendation about the continuance of the employment of each teacher who is on probation. This recommendation should be made in writing and a copy given to the teacher. It should discuss the work of the teacher fully and should give the basis for the recommendation. The teacher should have the right of rejoinder before the superintendent of schools makes a recommendation to the board.

Procedures to be used in judging teachers during their probationary period are important to all teachers. These procedures should be subject to discussion as part of the policy of the school district in relation to its professional staff. Teachers, teachers' organizations, the public, and the administrative staff should work together in order to develop recommendations for policy.

Dismissal of Teachers When under Tenure. The probationary period is intended to avoid firm commitments to those who do not meet the requirements of the school system. There still remains the problem of removing those who have passed the probationary period but do not keep fit for the profession. One of the major reasons why few teachers on tenure are dismissed even when dismissal is needed is that boards have

not established necessary procedures. When the need for dismissal procedures under tenure law arises, the lack of good procedure causes difficulties.

Because teachers and the public are concerned with the elimination from the profession of those who should not remain in it, they should develop jointly a procedure that will result in the elimination of the unfit and the retention of the fit. Such a procedure should stand up in court. While any set of rules and regulations for tenure trials should result from the coöperative interaction of those concerned, it might be helpful to examine in detail the procedures established by one of the large school systems of the United States. The Board of Directors of School District Number One in Multnomah County, Oregon, adopted rules of procedure for dismissal, transfer, or demotion of permanent teachers under the Oregon Teacher Tenure Law. These rules and regulations are excellent ones. They are included in their entirety as an example of good procedure.

Rules of Procedure for Dismissal, Transfer, or Demotion of Permanent Teachers under Oregon Teacher Tenure Law

Section A: Definitions

1. The terms "district" or "school district," as used herein, shall mean School District No. 1, Multnomah County, Oregon.
2. The terms "teacher" or "permanent teacher," as used herein, shall mean permanent teacher as that term is defined in Section 111-2304, O.C.L.A.
3. The term "law," as used herein, shall mean the Teachers' Tenure Law.
4. The term "board," as used herein, shall mean the board of directors of the district.
5. The term "examiner," as used herein, shall mean the board, its member, agent or agency conducting the hearing.
6. The term "dismiss," as used herein, shall mean discharge from the teaching service of the district.
7. The terms "transfer" or "demote," as used herein, shall mean transfer to a position in a lower branch of the teaching service of the district as classified in Section 111-2305, O.C.L.A.

Section B: Grounds for Dismissal or Demotion

1. No teacher shall be dismissed or demoted except for one or more of the grounds for dismissal enumerated in Section 111-2311, O.C.L.A., to-wit:

- (a) Inefficiency
- (b) Unbecoming conduct
- (c) Insubordination
- (d) Neglect of duty
- (e) Failure to comply with such reasonable requirements of the board as may be prescribed to show normal improvement and evidence of professional training and/or growth.

2. These rules and regulations shall not apply where dismissal, transfer, or demotion is caused by the abolition of any department or decreased pupil enrollment or other cause not personal to the teacher.

Section C: Temporary Suspensions

1. Whenever written charges stating one or more of the grounds for dismissal enumerated in Section 111-2311, O.C.L.A., have been filed with or by the superintendent of schools against any teacher and the superintendent believes that probable cause exists for the dismissal of such teacher upon such grounds, the superintendent, in his discretion, may suspend such teacher from the teaching service of the district pending investigation and disposition of such charges.

2. In the event the superintendent of schools does not file a recommendation for the dismissal of such teacher within ten (10) days from the date of such suspension, or in the event such recommendation is withdrawn by the superintendent or is overruled by the board, such teacher automatically shall be reinstated to his or her former position of employment and shall be compensated for time lost at his or her regular rate of pay, less any sums earned by such teacher during the period of suspension, and the board may require reasonable proof of sums earned by such teacher during such period prior to making restitution of lost pay.

3. In the absence or disability of the superintendent of schools, the acting superintendent or acting head of schools, if any, or the assistant superintendent having supervision over the teacher concerned, shall have and may exercise the powers conferred by this Section C.

Section D: Charges

1. A charge against any teacher may be made by any person or persons having a child or children attending the school where such teacher is employed to teach, or by the principal or any member of the teaching staff of such school, or by the superintendent of schools, or the assistant superintendent having supervision of such teacher.

2. Such charge or charges shall be filed in the office of the superintendent of schools and shall be a confidential record, unless such charges are thereafter filed with the school clerk as hereinafter provided; provided, however, that all such charges shall remain open to inspection by the teacher concerned.
3. Such charge shall be in writing addressed to the board and subscribed by the complainant or complainants, and shall contain the following:
 - (a) The full name of the teacher against whom the charge is made and the school where such teacher is employed to teach.
 - (b) A full, clear, and concise statement of the facts constituting the alleged cause for dismissal or transfer.
 - (c) The full name and address of each complainant.
4. It shall be the duty of the superintendent of schools to investigate the merits of all charges filed and of all other complaints made by any person against any teacher.

Section E: Procedure Preliminary To Hearing

1. After a charge has been filed, the superintendent of schools, if he shall be of the opinion that the teacher against whom the charge has been filed (hereinafter called the "respondent") should be dismissed or transferred, shall file a formal recommendation therefor with the board by filing the same with the school clerk, and attach thereto the formal charges upon which such recommendation is based.
2. Such formal recommendation shall be in writing addressed to the board and shall be subscribed by the superintendent of schools or the assistant superintendent having supervision over the respondent.
3. Should the superintendent of schools, after written charges against a teacher have been filed in his office by not less than ten (10) persons, representing not less than ten different families, refuse or fail to bring them to the attention of the board and make recommendations in the matter, then the person filing such charges may, after due notice to the superintendent, withdraw such charges from the office of the superintendent and present the same to the board by refiling the same with the school clerk. Thereafter, the board shall proceed to dispose of such charges in the same manner as if the same had been filed by the superintendent.
4. Recommendations and/or charges must be filed with the school clerk not later than ten (10) weeks before the end of the school year.
5. Whenever recommendations and/or charges are filed with the school clerk, within five (5) days thereafter he shall issue and cause to be served upon the respondent by personal service or by registered mail with return receipt requested a notice of the filing of recommendations and/or charges, together with a formal complaint prepared and issued by him, and a copy of these rules of procedure. If service is made by registered mail, a copy of the transmittal letter, together with the return receipt

issued by the United States Postal Department, shall constitute proof of service. If personal service is made, the same may be effected by any person above the age of eighteen years by delivering copies of the notice, complaint, and rules of procedure to the respondent personally and in person, and the affidavit of the person making such service shall constitute proof thereof.

6. Such notice shall be in writing subscribed by the school clerk and shall contain the following:

(a) The title of the cause, being entitled "Before the Board of Directors of School District No. 1, Multnomah County, Oregon, In the matter of . . .," specifying the name of the respondent and the school where such respondent is employed to teach, and the name or names of the complainants.

(b) A notification that recommendations for dismissal or transfer and/or charges against the respondent are on file in the office of the school clerk, specifying the date of such filing, and that a complaint has been issued, based upon such charges.

(c) A notification that unless respondent files with the school clerk within five (5) days from the date of service a notice of unwillingness to abide by such recommendations and/or charges and a request for a hearing, together with an answer to such complaint, the board will take formal action thereon, either dismissing or transferring respondent.

(d) A direct reference to copies of such recommendations and/or charges attached to the copy of the complaint served upon respondent with the notice.

(e) A direct reference to the copy of these rules of procedure served upon respondent with the notice.

7. Such formal complaint shall be in writing subscribed by the school clerk, shall conform to the standards of good pleading in practice in the courts of the State of Oregon, and shall contain the following:

(a) The title of the cause, being entitled in the same manner as the notice.

(b) A full, clear, and concise statement of the facts constituting the alleged grounds for dismissal or transfer, without unnecessary repetition.

(c) Copies of the recommendations and/or charges upon which the complaint is used.

The complaint may enlarge upon or add to the facts set forth in the charges upon which it is based, but shall not depart from the ground for dismissal or transfer set forth therein.

8. If the respondent is unwilling to abide by such recommendations and/or charges, he or she shall file with the school clerk, within five (5) days from the date of service, written notice and request for hearing, together with an answer to the complaint.

9. Such notice and request for hearing shall be in writing subscribed by the respondent and shall contain the following:

- (a) The title of the cause, being entitled in the same manner as the complaint.
- (b) A statement that respondent is unwilling to abide by the recommendations and/or charges.
- (c) A request for a hearing under the law.
- (d) A tender of an answer to the recommendation.

An additional copy of such notice and request for hearing shall be filed.

10. Such answer to the complaint shall be in writing subscribed by the respondent, shall conform to the standards of good pleading in practice in the courts of the State of Oregon, and shall contain the following:

- (a) The title of the cause, being entitled in the same manner as the complaint.
- (b) A general or specific denial of each material allegation of the complaint controverted by the respondent, or of any knowledge or information thereof sufficient to form a belief; provided, however, that nothing can be proved under a general denial that could not be proved under a specific denial of the same allegation or allegations.
- (c) A full, clear, and concise statement of any new matter constituting a defense, without unnecessary repetition.

One additional copy of the answer shall be filed.

11. Whenever a notice and request for hearing, accompanied by an answer, has been filed with the school clerk, he shall issue and cause to be served upon the respondent a notice of hearing before an examiner at a place therein fixed and at a time not less than ten (10) days after service upon the respondent. The school clerk shall also notify each director of the district of the time and place for such hearing and shall call a special meeting of the board to convene at said time and place.

12. Upon its own motion, or upon proper cause shown, the board may by order extend the date of such hearing.

13. Upon its own motion, or upon proper cause shown by the respondent, the board may, by written order, extend the time within which the answer shall be filed.

Section F: Amendments, Motions, Interventions, and Subpoenas

1. Any such complaint may be amended: prior to the hearing by the school clerk issuing the complaint; at the hearing and until the case has been submitted to the board for decision, upon motion, by the examiner designated to conduct the hearing, and after the case has been submitted to the board for decision, at any time prior to the issuance of an order based thereon, by the board.

2. The respondent may amend his or her answer at any time prior to the hearing. During the hearing, or subsequent thereto, he or she may amend the answer in any case where the complaint has been amended, within such period as may be fixed by the examiner or the board. Whether or not

the complaint has been amended, the answer may, in the discretion of the examiner or the board, upon motion, be amended upon such terms and within such periods as may be fixed by the examiner or the board.

3. All motions made prior to the hearing shall be filed in writing with the school clerk and shall briefly state the order or relief applied for and the grounds for such motion. The moving party shall serve a copy thereof upon each of the other parties. All motions made at the hearing shall be made in writing to the examiner or stated orally on the record.

4. The examiner designated to conduct the hearing shall rule upon all motions. All motions filed prior to the hearing shall be disposed of at the commencement of the hearing. Motions made during the hearing shall be disposed of at such time as shall be convenient to the examiner and the parties. Rulings by the examiner on motions, and any orders in connection therewith, if announced at the hearing, shall be stated orally on the record; in all other cases such rulings and orders shall be issued in writing and filed with the school clerk.

5. All motions, rulings, and orders shall become part of the record. Rulings by the examiner on motions and on objections, and orders in connection therewith, shall be considered by the board in reviewing the record.

6. A motion to dismiss a complaint or answer for want of facts sufficient to constitute a cause for dismissal or transfer or for want of facts sufficient to constitute a defense shall fulfill the office of a demurrer.

7. Each party shall be entitled to the same motions to be made at the same time or times and with like effect as are conferred by the Code of Civil Procedure of the State of Oregon upon litigants in civil cases in the courts of record of said state.

8. All written orders shall be filed with the school clerk and a copy thereof shall be served upon the respondent and upon the interveners, if any.

9. Any person desiring to intervene in any proceeding shall file a motion in writing setting out the grounds upon which such person claims to be interested. Prior to the hearing, such motions shall be filed with the school clerk; during the hearing, such motion shall be filed with the examiner. The original of such motion shall be subscribed by the person filing the motion, and shall be served upon each of the other parties. The examiner shall rule upon all such motions. The examiner may, by order, permit intervention in person or by counsel to such extent and upon such terms as he shall deem just.

10. Upon the request of the respondent, all complainants shall be subpoenaed by and at the expense of the board in order that they may be subjected to examination at the hearing by the respondent or his or her attorney.

11. Subpoenas for witnesses to testify either in support of the charges or on behalf of the respondent shall, as requested, be issued in blank by the

board over the signature of its chairman or school clerk, and such witnesses shall be entitled to receive the same mileage and per diem as witnesses called in civil cases in the circuit courts of the State of Oregon; provided, however, that said board shall not be accountable for the witness fees of more than ten (10) of such witnesses so subpoenaed on behalf of the respondent.

Section G: Procedure upon Hearing

1. A cause shall be tried solely upon the issues framed by the complaint and answer. Any new matter in the answer shall be taken as denied and no reply need be filed to traverse the same.
2. The hearing for the purpose of taking evidence shall be conducted by the examiner designated by the board or by the board sitting *en banc*, in which latter event one of its members shall be designated to preside and rule upon all motions, objections, and other questions of law or evidence arising during the progress of the hearing. Any judge of a court of record of the State of Oregon, or any member of the bar of said state actively engaged in the practice of law therein, shall be eligible for appointment as examiner. It shall be the policy of the board to designate an examiner in preference to sitting *en banc*, wherever feasible, in order that the hearing shall be conducted by one specially trained in judicial procedure and skilled in the trial of causes, and to consult with and give careful consideration to the suggestions or recommendations of the presiding judge of the Circuit Court of the State of Oregon for Multnomah County in selecting an examiner.
3. The hearing shall be private, unless the respondent shall request a public hearing; provided, that minors shall not be permitted to attend such hearings except as witnesses duly subpoenaed to testify with respect to charges.
4. All proceedings had at such hearing shall be reported in full by a competent reporter employed by the board.
5. It shall be the duty of the examiner to inquire fully into the facts alleged in the complaint and controverted by the answer, and into the facts alleged in the answer constituting new matter, if any, and he shall have power to call, examine, and cross-examine witnesses and to introduce into the record documentary or other evidence.
6. Any party shall have the right to appear at such hearing in person, by counsel, or otherwise, to call, examine, and cross-examine witnesses, and to introduce into the record documentary or other evidence.
7. In any such proceeding, the rules of procedure and evidence prevailing in the courts of record of the State of Oregon shall be controlling, except that offers of proof shall not be made or received. Where the rules of procedure governing the trials of actions at law and suits in equity are in conflict, the former shall control.

8. In any such proceeding, stipulations of fact may be introduced in evidence with respect to any issue.

9. Any objection with respect to the conduct of the hearing, including any objection to the introduction of evidence, may be stated orally or in writing, accompanied by a short statement of the grounds of such objection, and included in the record. No such objection shall be deemed waived by further participation in the hearing. Exceptions shall be allowed automatically to any party from adverse rulings as to such party.

10. The burden of proof as to each issue shall be upon the party carrying the affirmative of such issue.

11. The order of proof shall follow generally that of the trial of civil cases in the courts of the State of Oregon. The parties shall be entitled to make opening statements if desired, in which event counsel for the board shall be entitled to make the first statement, any interveners in support of charges shall be entitled to make the next statement, and the respondent shall be entitled to make the final statement. Each party shall have the right to reserve the making of such statement until time to put on such party's case in chief. The board, by its counsel, shall first put on its case in chief in support of the complaint. Any interveners in support of charges shall next put on proof to the extent of their intervention permitted by the examiner. When the board and the interveners, if any, have rested, respondent shall go forward with his or her case in chief. Thereafter, the board and the interveners, if any, shall be entitled to put on rebuttal proof.

12. The hearing shall be conducted at a special meeting of the board duly called and held for that purpose at the time and place specified in the notice of hearing, as hereinbefore provided. The chairman of the board shall convene the meeting and shall formally designate an examiner, if not theretofore designated, and shall thereupon turn the meeting over to the examiner. In the discretion of the examiner the hearing may be conducted from day to day or adjourned to a later date or to a different place by announcement thereof at the hearing by the examiner or by other appropriate notice. The board shall hear the evidence and shall remain present at all times during the hearing except when the same may be in recess. At the conclusion of the evidence, the examiner shall withdraw from further participation in the hearing, except only to the extent that he may have reserved rulings upon any motions, objections, or other questions of law or evidence arising during the hearing.⁴ The chairman of the board thereupon shall resume the chair, and all further proceedings shall be had before the board *en banc*.

13. Any party shall be entitled, upon request, to a reasonable period at the close of the hearing for oral argument, which shall not be included in the stenographic report of the hearing unless the parties and/or the board so directs. Any party shall be entitled, upon request made at or before

the close of the hearing, to file a brief within such time as may be fixed by the board. In the event of oral arguments or briefs the board shall have the right to open and close.

Section H: Procedure Following Hearing

1. At the conclusion of the evidence and when all rulings upon reserved questions, if any, have been rendered, the board may:

- (a) Decide the matter forthwith upon the record or after the filing of briefs or oral argument; or
- (b) Reopen the record and receive further evidence or require the taking of further evidence before the board or an examiner; or
- (c) Make other disposition of the case.

The board shall notify the parties of the time and place of any such submission of briefs, oral argument or taking of further evidence.

2. The board shall base its decision solely on the evidence submitted at the hearing and not otherwise.

3. The decision of the board shall include findings and conclusions and an order based thereon. The findings and conclusions of the board and its order shall be reduced to writing and subscribed by each member of the board concurring therein, and a copy of said findings and conclusions and a copy of said order shall be served upon the respondent and upon the interveners, if any; provided that the findings, conclusions, and order may be combined in a single document.

4. The record of the proceedings before the board shall be available without charge for the use of the respondent in the event he or she wishes to apply to the courts for a writ or review or to appeal to the Teachers' Tenure Commission; provided that no transcript of the testimony taken before the board will be supplied if the respondent demands that the case be heard *de novo* on appeal before said commission.

Section I: Miscellaneous

1. The school clerk now or hereafter in the employ of the district hereby is designated by the board as its agent.

- (a) To receive and file all recommendations and/or charges, notices, motions, answers, and other papers permitted by the law consistent with these rules of procedure
- (b) To fix the time and place of hearings and to issue complaints and notices of hearings, to amend complaints and to cause to be served all complaints, notices of hearings, motions, orders, and other papers of the board permitted by the law and these rules of procedure.
- (c) To execute and issue subpoenas in the name of the board.
- (d) To administer oaths and affirmations.

- (e) To take charge and custody of the entire record of each matter prosecuted under the law and these rules of procedure and to certify such record or a copy thereof to the proper court or to the Teachers' Tenure Commission, as the case may be, whenever an appeal is taken from a decision of the board.
2. Each examiner designated by the board as to any cause pending before it under the law and these rules of procedure hereby is authorized and designated by the board as its agent to conduct the hearing of said cause in accordance with the law and these rules of procedure and to rule upon all motions, objections, and other questions of law and evidence arising therein.
 3. The chairman of the board, or in his absence or disability, the vice-chairman of the board is hereby authorized by the board to render all orders of the board which become necessary prior to the hearing of any cause.
 4. These rules of procedure shall be liberally construed to effectuate the purposes and provisions of the law.
 5. Any of these rules of procedure may be amended or rescinded at any time.⁶

The procedure just given in considerable detail places the board of education in the position of hearing evidence before making a decision. It places the administrative staff in the position of making complaints, providing the teacher with a copy of the complaints, and producing evidence substantiating them. It places the teacher in the position of having the right to present full and fair rebuttal of the complaints, to be represented by a lawyer, and to have the full protection of the presiding officer at the trial. It meets the orderly requirements of the courts. It is quite probable that no decision reached under this procedure will be overturned by a court because of a failure in the procedure itself.

It is highly important that the information which the school system keeps about each teacher will be such that evidence from it can be submitted at a tenure trial in the few situations where this evidence is needed. Except in an extremely unusual and dramatically critical circumstance, it is unwise for an administrator to collect additional evidence because he expects to present evidence at a tenure trial. This gives the appearance of trying to make a case against an individual teacher rather than having the case arise out of the usual operations of the school district.

⁶ Rules of Procedure for Dismissal, Transfer, or Demotion of Permanent Teachers, adopted by the Board of Directors of School District Number One, Multnomah County, Oregon, August 11, 1943.

Personnel Records and Record Keeping

It is easy to develop a complicated and voluminous system of personnel records. It is less easy to develop the kind of system that keeps only the needed material. The needs of individual school districts vary, and these needs should be taken into account. There are some needs, however, common to all school systems. Information on personnel records is used to make the assignment of a teacher to a particular position, to select individuals who might be considered for promotion, to provide information to prospective employers of teachers, to select persons to serve on committees, to provide information to retirement boards, and to come to decisions about the retention of the teacher. The specific items needed will vary according to the practices and requirements of each school district. In general, the material needed in a good personnel record is indicated in the following list:

Personal—Age, marital status, name, race, religion, socio-cultural background, dates of medical examination, and statements of fitness to teach.

Training—Secondary schools attended with dates and date of graduation. Institutions of higher education, with dates attended and degrees and dates awarded.

Certificates held—areas in which certificated, with dates issued and reissued and dates of expiration.

Employment other than by school district: Professional—Name of employer, nature of work done (including classes taught, administrative duties, and extracurricular responsibilities).

Dates of employment, employers' judgments of quality of performance.

Other than professional work—name of employers, nature of work done, dates of employment, employers' judgments of quality of performance.

Employment by school district: school or position to which assigned, with dates and nature of work (including classes taught, administrative duties, committee service, and extracurricular responsibilities, judgments about quality of performance.) Rejoinders to judgments.

Community activities—Free response by teachers.

Professional Activities—Free response by teachers.

Travel—Free response by teachers.

Other material—Free response by teachers.

The personnel record of a teacher should be available to the principal of the school. It should be available to the teacher himself. It should be available to the central administrative staff of the school district and to supervisors. It should not be available to other persons.

Teachers should be encouraged to participate in determining what items should go in a personnel record form. Policy about who has access to personnel records should be determined on a coöperative basis, since the interest of the teacher in who sees his record is at least as great as that of the school district.

Considerations in the Selection, Retention, and Dismissal of Non-Academic Staff

In general, the distinctions between academic and non-academic staff should be made on the basis of training required, responsibility of work done, prevailing wage for similar work within the community, and provisions related to the nature of the work itself. There should be no distinction between academic and non-academic staff in respect to rights and perquisites as employees of the school district. All of the arguments for providing tenure of office, retirement pay, leaves of absence, and participation in the determining of policy in respect to pay and working conditions, apply equally well to academic and non-academic staffs.

At the time of selection of non-academic personnel different kinds of questions will be asked than at the time of selection of academic personnel. For example, janitors need more strength and agility than do teachers. Experience in a trade carries more weight than professional training in the consideration of persons for the maintenance crew. The principles that operate well in the selection, retention, and dismissal of the academic staff will operate well with the non-academic staff, but the information used in each case will, of course, be different.

Teachers will generally be members of the same professional organization and will present a united front in collective bargaining in order to establish policy in respect to pay, working conditions, and the like.

But this will not generally be true of the non-academic staff, particularly in a large school district where members of the non-academic staff are frequently members of labor unions. As members of labor unions they are accustomed to having bargaining done for them by business agents. While some employers in industry are developing coöperative relationships with business agents in unions, this is by no means universal. It is much more difficult to establish these relationships with an organized non-academic staff than with the academic staff. This difficulty does not arise out of the nature of organized labor but rather out of the experiences of organized labor in negotiating and bargaining with employers who are not public agencies. In the long run, however, the labor unions' experience in the bargaining process leads them to keep a bargain after it has been made. While the administrator who has little or no experience in collective bargaining will be at a disadvantage during the bargaining process, he can be sure that after an agreement is reached the question will not be reopened except as provided for in the agreement. Wherever possible, it is desirable to establish a council of non-academic employees or of their business agents to avoid the problem of competition among groups in order that one may secure an advantage that the other does not have.

In the long run, good faith by the school board and good faith by the administrator will produce good faith on the part of employees of any type. Coöperative relationships become possible when the power is distributed through the encouragement of strong organizations. This provides a sound basis for the improvement of practices in selection, retention, and other personnel policies of the local schools.

Suggested Reading

D. H. Cooper, "Establishing Salary Schedules for Educational Employees." In American Educational Research Association, *Growing Points in Educational Research; Official Report*. A discussion of basic features of any salary scheduling attempt. The author treats "bargaining," "contract," "differentials," "adjustments." The theory of scheduling developed depends upon the efficacy of comparing occupations and the real cost of living.

Illinois Association of School Boards, *Salary Schedules for Teachers*. In view of all the controversy concerning salary schedules, this booklet attempts to define scheduling, purposes of scheduling, current progress in this trend, participants in scheduling, and a series of principles.

E. W. Laughran, "In-service Education, What Form Should It Take?" *Educational Administration and Supervision* (October, 1950). A provocative discussion of the need to get out of the ruts we have fallen into in our thinking and acting about "in-service" training. The author is leery of more courses being piled on "for credit" as a measure of in-service training. The alternative suggested, in bare outlines, is a program of two areas—informal teacher discussions and community discussion groups.

S. V. Martorana and L. V. Koos, "Salaries and Schedules: an Exploratory Inquiry," *Junior College Journal* (April, 1949). A useful study although it includes only junior college data. Thirteen evaluative standards in fixing salary schedules are listed and divided into four groups according to the degree to which the standards are met.

Metropolitan School Study Council, *The Newly Appointed Teacher*. The study covers three periods: (1) before assignment to the job; (2) during the first few weeks; (3) during the first year. Personal adjustment and professional competence are the areas studied. The appendixes make up half of the booklet and include a "check list of practices," community resources, responses to a questionnaire on practices, and recommended practices.

National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, *The Teaching Profession Grows in Service*. Combines all the "group reports" of the New Hampshire Conference held in 1949 at the University of New Hampshire. The reports are uneven in quality and length, but this is a useful reference for supervisory personnel.

R. B. Norris, "Can Your School and Community Attract and Hold the Best Teachers?" *American School Board Journal* (February, 1948). The article is brief, but the author seems to raise the proper questions in this area. Four areas of questions are distinguished: school plant; school organization; teachers' rights and compensation; the nature of the community.

T. D. Rice and F. S. Stafford, "How Can We Administer In-service Education Programs through Workshops?" *National Association of Secondary School Principals' Bulletin* (May, 1949). The first half of this discussion develops the general approach through two principles: (1) participants should help formulate and evaluate the program of in-service training; and (2) the responsibility should be entirely local. The second half of the discussion deals with specific, "practical" difficulties in objectives and methods and content. The entire discussion is summarized in a page outline.

D. G. Ryans, "Procedures Employed in Teacher Selection," *Teachers College Journal* (January, 1949). A study of procedures used to select public school teachers, which turns out to be a deploring of the lack of sound and vigorous procedures. A questionnaire instrument was used to obtain data.

D. G. Ryans, "Statistical Procedures in the Selection of Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research* (May, 1947). An argument by the author for the use of an instrument he used as a member of the National Committee on Teacher Examination. In the other references he reports results; here he explains and attempts to justify the use of his instrument.

How to House the School Program

CHAPTER 14

In the village community of Anonymity the school cafeteria facilities were overcrowded. The pupils and the parents, through various organizations, had been agitating for an enlargement of the school cafeteria. They had presented a plan of extending the present cafeteria room in the only direction open. The extension would jut south into the middle of the playground for elementary school pupils. The draftsman had prepared a plan showing a higher ceiling for the addition to the room in order to allow more window space for interior lighting. His drawings did not show that such construction would provide a box-like depression corresponding to the roof over the present cafeteria. Such a box-like basin would catch the snow and water and would present a continuous problem of building maintenance. The local group which had sponsored the school lunch program had raised feelings to such a high pitch that many of the board members felt they must comply with the request of the people. It was at this point in the board of education meeting that Mrs. Schofield, a board member, called a "stop and think" signal.

Mrs. Schofield pointed out the status of the present building under consideration. The original portion had been constructed many years ago. Some twenty years later an addition was built, larger than the original building but patterned on the original building. When federal government funds were available during the thirties, two further additions had been constructed. The two new additions once again more

than doubled the capacity of the school building, and they were built in harmony with the plan of the original building. Now, at a time when the oldest portion of the building should be abandoned because of excessive maintenance costs and obsolete style, the Anonymity school district found no good choice of action available. It could continue to maintain all of the building despite excessive costs. It could raze and replace the original central portion on an intricate time schedule and with double labor costs. It might abandon the original section and the first addition, and then replace them with enough construction to make the latest additions functional. In adding to the original building every addition had been forced into the pattern of the past to some degree. And the initial pattern had not been laid out to provide for extension. Mrs. Schofield proposed to think in terms of a pattern for the future, if possible. Recognizing the sixty years the old building had served, she wanted the district to think sixty years ahead in its construction planning instead of sixty years behind. She made her point and carried her motion that the proposal for the cafeteria addition be tabled until the district had first developed an over-all plan for housing its school program.

If a school district is to avoid building on the pattern of the past, if it is to avoid a building situation which becomes a conglomerate of patching and piecing out, it must develop and maintain a long-range plan of school housing. On the basis of a long-range plan each new construction or alteration can be a step toward the realization of the ultimate plan rather than a temporary measure to meet a current emergency. If it needs to be a temporary measure, the length of the current emergency can be determined as part of the plan. Otherwise the temporary construction through appropriate maintenance becomes permanent for all practical purposes. Its existence then stands in the way of further realization of the ultimate plan.

Developing and Maintaining an Over-all Plan

An over-all plan is initially developed from a study of the population to be schooled, the possible utilization of present facilities, and the program of education to be carried on. Such a plan should be developed by careful survey and by planning based on the survey findings. Periodically, the survey findings should be re-studied so that the plan is continually

modified to reflect community changes and developments in education and in schoolhouse construction. Four major questions are generally raised by communities in each building survey: How many individuals of what ages are to be served by the schools, and where do they live? What educational program is to be offered to these people? How adequate are present facilities for this program? How able and willing is the community to supply the additional facilities needed?

Those to Be Served

In answering the first question a pupil pin map is made for the district, if it does not already have one. As described in Chapter 9 in connection with the discussion of the continuing school census, such a map shows the location of each child of school age, with differing symbols for children of various age groups. Such a pin map will also include representations of those children of pre-school age. Starting with this ascertainable data the problem of long-range planning is dependent upon a study of how this known population will change in number, age-group pattern, and residence location. The successive pictures of pin maps suggested in Chapter 9 will provide a basis for forecasting developments. The over-all number of individuals to be schooled is dependent upon birth rate and upon population gains or losses through movement of people. It is also dependent upon the extent to which educational services are offered for individuals younger and older than the ages of compulsory school attendance. It is dependent upon the degree to which the public school serves well enough to attract and retain in school those not of compulsory school age and those who might attend private or parochial schools. Proposed changes in the educational program may thus be responsible for a change in the number of individuals to be served by the schools.

From pin maps showing children of school and pre-school age currently residing in the district, a forecast based on actual known residents can be made of school enrollment for the next four to six years (depending upon whether the local school program starts with the four-, five-, or six-year-olds). Assuming this to be the soundest forecast possible, it still fails to look far enough to the future. By the time any decision can be reached to build, plans drawn, contracts assigned, and construction completed, one, two, or more years are used up. The construction planned in a long-range program may well be spread out over

twenty-five to fifty years. It is necessary, therefore, to estimate by projecting into the future the trends in population and birth rate during the past years. By establishing school survival rates for each grade level (percentage of pupils remaining in each succeeding grade of the number starting in the first grade or kindergarten) a further refinement can be introduced.¹

In Evanston, Illinois, such forecasting was based upon study of population trends in Evanston for the preceding twenty years, projections of population by the Evanston Planning Commission from 1947-60, study of the enrollment in the school district, study of enrollment trends in the elementary grades from kindergarten through grade six, study of enrollment trends in separate attendance-unit districts, analysis of enrollment grade by grade in each school to develop a relationship between kindergarten enrollment in that area and probable enrollment in the grade the same children will reach in subsequent years, estimate of the number of new houses that will be built on vacant land by leading builders.² In this case the study of trends was accomplished in each section of the city so that planning building by building could be done more accurately than would result from a simple total estimate for the city as a whole. In one section of the city, for example, a heavy enrollment in lower grades had not been followed through by heavy enrollment in upper grades. Analysis revealed that this section was in an apartment area where married couples stayed until the children were older and more numerous, at which time they moved to other sections of the city which would provide more room.

Other sources of data helpful in estimating number and location of school population, also listed in Chapter 9, include the forecasts made by utility companies providing water, electric, gas, and telephone services. Local boards or associations of realtors may have forecasts of directions of growth. Zoning boards have developmental plans that show the limits within which residential growth may occur. Local chambers of commerce may have developed population forecasts for the community and should know of contemplated industrial or commercial developments which would directly affect the population.

¹ American Association of School Administrators, *American School Buildings*, pp. 50-57.

² "A Study of Post-War Building Needs for District 75," unpublished report, Board of Education, District 75, Evanston, Illinois, 1948, pp. 1 and 2.

Services to Be Provided

The second question—what educational program is to be offered—is one that is never finally answered. It is always under study. The complexity of such study and its continuous nature were discussed in Chapters 10 and 11. However, the current best answers must be given at a time when a building survey is under way or being re-studied for modification. At such a time the community must be more definite. Answers of a different order can be given. In the ordinary study of curriculum much of the thinking is conditioned by the physical conditions in which the program must operate. When changes in the physical plant are under consideration, these usual restrictions on curriculum planning are lifted. Some persons may have resisted curriculum change on the excuse that it was not possible in the existing physical plant, but there is no reason for such resistance when building changes are being planned. School buildings can be fitted to the educational program more directly and with infinitely less cost when the fitting is done at the time the plans for the building are being conceived rather than after they have been constructed. If the physical facilities are as restrictive actually or psychologically as they seem to be, it is of great importance to develop the long-range plan on the basis of desirable developments to be accomplished rather than to build for the current program, which is already becoming outmoded.

Program planning related to schoolhouse planning presents one of the strongest motivations for curriculum revision. The professional staff will realize that the building is to be used for many years and that the change from an old to a new building is an advantageous time for them to make many desired changes in the program. As individual citizens think of the new buildings to be constructed, many of them will have varied desires. Some will want the provision of space for kindergartens and nursery schools; others will want better provision for physical education. Some may want more provision for adult education and community use; others will want provision for better vocational education. There may be demand for provision for special education for the handicapped. Better science laboratories or a better arrangement for the school library may be the special interest of certain citizens. Other citizens will want facilities for emphasis on the fine arts. Some of these interested citizens will have much information and some good ideas

with respect to their particular desires. It is the job of the school staff to have the people of the local community see all of these desires in relationship to each other and in relationship to the best educational thinking throughout the country.

As the local community ponders the question of what educational program is to be offered, it will do so in terms of the program already being offered. This was discussed in Chapter 10. The situation calls for a review of the satisfaction and dissatisfaction felt concerning the present program. It calls for evaluation of the extent to which physical facilities prevent the accomplishment of the present objectives, and a study of the extent to which improved facilities will make accomplishment possible. It especially calls for a fresh look at the educational program. The professional staff has a responsibility for technically evaluating the results of the present program and for interpreting such evaluation to the community. This will involve an interpretation of the existing goals of the school program. The staff must also make available to the community the best thinking reported in professional literature, and should call community attention to the educational developments accomplished by other school districts.

Drawing on all the study of what might be offered, a master list of the desirable developments should be created from those desires of individual citizens and community groups, from the experiences of other schools, and from the professional literature. Generally such a list will represent more than the community can accomplish all at once. Some priority of the order in which various changes in the program are to be accomplished is necessary. This order will condition and will be conditioned by the school housing plan.

Adequacy of Facilities

Sometimes the third question—how adequate are the present facilities for the educational program to be offered—is shortened to that of how adequate are the present facilities. This question has frequently been answered in local situations by the use of building score cards.³ Such

³ Building score cards commonly used in the past were those of Strayer and Engelhardt, such as: *Standards for High School Buildings*, *Standards for Junior High School Buildings*, *Standards for Elementary School Buildings*; also T. C. Holy and W. E. Arnold, *Standards for the Evaluation of School Buildings*.

Similar score cards representing developments in school buildings are those by C. W. Odell: *Standards for the Evaluation of Elementary School Buildings*, *Standards for the Evaluation of Secondary School Buildings*.

score cards list all of the items about the school site and building and equipment that are to be scored, and a manual provides directions for scoring them. Total possible scores are generally in terms of one thousand points. Recommendations for modernization and alteration are indicated if the total score is between four hundred and six hundred, and recommendations for abandonment as soon as possible, when the total score is less than four hundred. Such score cards yield a numerical index representing the adequacy of the building in terms of the standards established by the maker of the score card. Generally he has established these through a study of other score cards, existing school plants, standards set by various state departments of education and by associations concerned with aspects of building construction, and by tryout in a number of school buildings. This gives an indication of whether or not the building is good or bad according to current practice and thinking in schoolhouse construction; but it is unrelated to the question of how adequate the building is for the specific educational program of the local community except as that program is identified with the average usual program of schools in general or with those used by the author of the score card in establishing the standards.

A score card is valuable in most situations, and the data yielded are of importance to the local community as it ponders the development of a building program. Score cards provide itemized lists for use in checking through existing buildings. Recent score cards will present much in the way of developments in school housing which would otherwise be missed altogether or would have to be assembled by a wide review of the many articles, bulletins, and books on various aspects of school housing. The weighting imposed by numerical scoring does force the user to more systematic appraisal. The generalized totals provide some over-all estimate of the quality of the school housing. This over-all estimate must be accepted or explained. Other standards and guides are available which provide information without any basis for numerical scoring.⁴

⁴ See *Guide for Planning School Plants*, 1949 edition, published by the National Council on Schoolhouse Construction.

Write to the state department of education and ask for standards or guides. The New York State Education Department, Albany, has issued a series of guides, such as: *Planning the Outdoor Physical Education Facilities for Central Schools*, *Planning the Elementary Classroom*, *Planning the School Auditorium*, *Sanitary Facilities in School Buildings*. See Bibliography for other titles.

Other guides to standards are to be found in reports of special subject field associations (American Library Association on *Planning the School Library*, etc.) and in such periodicals as *The Nations Schools*, *The American School Board Journal*, *The American School and University*, *The School Executive*.

To have a valid opinion on how modern and adequate buildings are, an observer must be informed on how modern and adequate they can be. On the basis of such information the local community will be better able to determine how adequate the present facilities are for the particular program contemplated. Instead of using numerical scores, the ratings may be reported verbally, as was done in Portland, Oregon, where the report was concerned with items to be changed rather than with a report on every conceivable portion of each building.⁵

The local community might have a specific set of standards or a score card drawn for each building, based upon good building standards and upon the program to be offered in the particular building. If a building fails to serve adequately the educational purposes to be accomplished in it, its value may be questioned regardless of how safe or how structurally sound, how oriented on the site, or how sanitary it might be. In preparing specific standards an approach to determining the adequacy of a building would start with the question of identifying the purposes of the particular building and what prevents it from fulfilling these purposes. The local community, and especially the staff of each building, might consider with respect to each building: What do we need to do here that we cannot now do? Is the building safe? Is it sanitary? Is it economical in operation? Is it accessible and attractive? Is it enough? As these questions are answered the long-range building plan can take shape in terms of the construction of additional buildings or of additions to existing buildings, alterations to be effected in existing buildings, and buildings or portions of buildings to be razed.

Financial Willingness and Ability

How able and willing is the community to provide the additional facilities needed? No long-range plan is realistic that is not phrased within the financial ability and willingness of the local community. The measure of ability is expressed in several different ways. It may be expressed simply in the amount of difference between the present bonded indebtedness and the legal limit permitted. In most states the local district may not bond above a legal percentage of its total valuation. The difference between its actual bonded indebtedness and the computed legal limit is considered to be its bonding leeway. The community may wish to give further consideration to the bonded indebtedness of other

⁵ *Modernizing the School Plant*: Portland, Oregon, Public Schools (1945).

governmental units taxing the same property in determining actual current ability to finance new construction.

Sometimes ability is expressed in terms of a comparison with the financial status of corresponding communities. Such comparisons are also used in expressing local willingness. A review of the treatment accorded past proposals for increases in school tax levies and for approval of school bond issues may give some indication of the willingness of the local community to support a building program. Another approach to willingness might be a study of the extent to which the local community had supported various cultural and charitable activities. Another possible approach would be a determination of the attitude of organized groups in the community toward supporting further development of the school building programs, or even a sampling of general public opinion on the issue.

The Nature of the Long-range Plan

On the basis of knowledge of the number and location of individuals to be schooled, the educational program to be offered, the school housing required for such a program beyond existing facilities, and the willingness and ability of the local community, it is possible to lay out a long-range program of school housing. The plan itself must be flexible in terms of population shifts and sudden unexpected developments, continuing changes in the educational program, and the shifts in economic conditions favoring or hindering the school building program. Within limits the timing of the program should be geared to the economic advantage of the school district and of society. It is easier to vote approval for school buildings when employment is high. It is more economical to borrow when money is cheap and interest rates are low. It is cheaper to build when employment is low and general construction activity is sluggish. Building at such a time will help to stimulate business activity and restore employment in general. However, it is to be noted that schoolhouse construction is unlike many of the public works. The birth rate produces a flow of students who may hit school age at a time other than during the most advantageous phase of the economic cycle. But they cannot be stored away until we are ready to build schoolhouses for them—they must be taken care of as they come along, or they will lose out completely. Hence the population forecast

is the most compelling influence of the four areas considered in laying out the long-range plan.

The plan must be flexible and subject to change and so must the school plant facilities to be provided. Adequate school sites must be acquired as early as possible. As direction and amount of growth are estimated, the local community should set aside appropriate sites, including more land than is likely to be needed rather than less. Once a school is located and the residences and small businesses build up around it, the site can be expanded only at excessive cost. If the site is too large, it is easier to sell the excess portion. In some places it is considered wise to have two or three alternate sites in reserve for each possible future building through purchase of an option on each site. If the study of direction and amount of growth has been sound, the school district will find the sites it owns or has optioned will increase in value. The reservation of ample possible school sites makes provision for flexibility and expansion.

When sites are of ample size, it is easier to plan for expansion in buildings. The buildings may be so placed on the site and so planned that additions are possible. With ample grounds available it may be desirable to build a campus-style school plant. Such a plan makes possible a variety of interior designs adapted to the specific purposes for which the buildings are to be used. It will not leave a district in the circumstances cited at the beginning of this chapter in the village of Anonymity. The interior of the building may be styled for flexibility by avoiding service connections and dependence for structural support of floors or roof above in the partitions between rooms. Where special rooms are not to be used consistently throughout the day for the special purpose, such rooms may be planned as multi-purpose rooms with a saving in over-all construction costs and with increased flexibility in the use of the building.

In planning an over-all building program the district should consider the organization of its attendance units. Where large area is involved, the community may find it desirable to have its school plant dispersed so that community centers are provided throughout the district. Where the population is sparse, the district may be compelled to consider centralization of facilities in order to have enough school pupils at one attendance center to justify provision of all the facilities desired. Thought will need to be given to the type of grade organization within the district

and to flexibility of such organization with shifts in number and location of school population. It may be possible to plan neighborhood schools close to home for small children, upper elementary schools embracing larger attendance areas, and secondary schools of still larger geographic area. The pattern of internal organization throughout the country is of wide variety. In a group of city schools⁶ the most common pattern of organization was found to be the 6-3-3 grade grouping, which was in use in slightly over a third of the schools studied. Other patterns found in the study were 8-4, 6-6, 6-2-4, 6-3-3-2, 7-5, 5-3-4, 6-2-4-2, 7-2-3, 6-4-4, 4-4-4-4. Kindergarten or nursery school or both might be added in front of any of these patterns but the last. Within given cities the pattern of grade groupings in buildings need not be uniform throughout the city. The pattern of grade grouping should be based on the provision of the best educational opportunities for children with the physical facilities available and the assignment of staff possible.

The community must consider many things in deciding upon dispersal or centralization in planning the school plant. Will it provide transportation for pupils to a central center, or will it provide transportation to special staff members and duplicate special facilities in all of the attendance centers? What will be the effect of dispersal or centralization upon heating costs, utility services, janitorial services, building maintenance? What arrangement of building space will provide best services for community use? What neighborhood groups throughout the district will want the use of school property for community purposes? What kinds of adult education activities may be planned that would call for dispersal of plant? To what extent will community use of plant require special facilities possible only when the plant is centralized?

The long-range plan should be part of the over-all plan of community development. (The reader will recall the discussion of the relationships to the school of the various aspects of local community life presented in Chapter 4.) If there is a local planning commission, school authorities must work closely with such a commission. If there is no central local planning authority, there are several local groups with whom the school plant planners should exchange opinions and information. Schools should take advantage of coördination with any local park or recreation boards. In cities where property is at premium prices, it is important to

⁶ "Trends in City-School Organization 1938 to 1948," *N. E. A. Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXVII (February, 1949), pp. 7-15.

build schools and parks so that the school may have use of park facilities for playgrounds and the park system may have use of school facilities for the recreation program. In planning a dispersed plant the school should have information from the road commissioners. In the city, information from the street commissioner is necessary in avoiding the location of a school on highways or arterial routes to be developed. Exchange of information on advanced planning will enable the school planners to place attendance units so that children will have the fewest number of hazardous crossings in terms of contemplated street and highway developments.

To sum it all up: The long-range plan for school housing must be flexible and subject to continuous re-study and modification. It must provide a school plant that is flexible and expansible. It must provide for each specific construction proposal in relationship to an over-all pattern of development. It must take into account the developments and plans of other community agencies affecting the school.

Using Specialists

In planning and developing the school plant the community will use a variety of specialists. The most commonly recognized of such experts is the *architect*. Architects may be employed to design and supervise the construction of buildings, or they may be employed as consulting architects. If a system is large enough, it may have a school architect on the central administrative staff. Such an architect furnishes professional services in connection with over-all planning of plant development. The designing of specific projects may be accomplished in his office or may be assigned to independent architects. The architect knows materials and their relationships. He is trained to fit space and fixtures to activities. He needs a clear statement of those activities if his work is to be truly functional. He is used best when there is understanding of his competencies on the part of the employing community. Sometimes local community agents determine so specifically the kinds of materials and the size and shape of the building they wish designed that they eliminate that portion of the architect's service which is most valuable. Though they employ an architect, they actually use him as a draftsman under such circumstances.

A consulting architect or a staff architect should be used to help

keep the local community open-minded about new developments in building materials, fixtures, and design. When no such person is employed, the local professional staff will have to serve such a function. They should take community groups to see a variety of new buildings. Slides or displays of pictures of new developments in school housing should be used at community meetings. School board members will keep themselves informed by reading professional journals of school administration. As the community approaches a time for decision leading to specific action, there should be wide circularization of new information. The public library might have available books on buildings. The architect employed to design and to supervise construction will be free or restricted in terms of the readiness of the community to consider a variety of designs and materials.

* The architect employed to design and supervise construction of a specific project is expected to participate in necessary conferences with those planning the building project. He will make preliminary studies based on information developed in the conferences and upon the findings of surveys, borings, and tests of the site on which the project is to be constructed. He will prepare specifications and full-size detail drawings for the use of the contractors. He will draft the forms of proposals and of contracts. He will issue certificates authorizing payments to contractors as the work progresses and will keep accounts on the project. If the architect is expected to supervise construction closely or to make regular inspections of construction in progress, special provision for such services should be made in the contract.

The *contractor* is in the business of furnishing materials and labor to accomplish the construction ordered according to the specifications and working drawings of the architect. Contractors are generally employed on the basis of bids submitted. The architect prepares a statement of specifications and working drawings for the new building, the new addition, or the alteration to be accomplished, and these are inspected by contractors wishing to bid on the work. Such bids are generally submitted under seal so that all may be opened at one meeting of the board of education. Some guarantee of performance in the form of a bond or a certified check is required of each contractor, and this bond or check is not released to the successful contractor until his work has been completed and accepted by the board and the architect as having met the requirements specified. General contractors assume responsibility

for a variety of construction activities. Special contractors may assume the responsibility for such separate portions of the construction work as painting, plumbing and heating, and electrical work.

In connection with special problems the architect or the school district may seek the services of an engineer. When there is consideration of the correction or improvement of a specific aspect of the physical plant or when new construction presents unusual problems, a consulting engineer may be employed if an architect is in charge. Such problems are those of heating and ventilating, safety, acoustics, lighting.

In recent years more and more use has been made of the *educational consultant* as a specialist. In some situations the local school administrator is actually the educational consultant. In other situations an educational consultant is employed as an outside specialist. The educational consultant is familiar with newer developments in education as related to newer developments in school buildings. He is able to help the local community think through their decisions in terms of educational activities for which provision is to be made, so that the architect has a clear basis on which to conceive and develop plans for the building project. The educational consultant may start work for the community when the initial building survey is undertaken. The organization, direction, and interpretation of such a survey become his first obligation to the local community.

School districts will employ *legal counsel* to provide the technical help in drawing up the proposals to be submitted to vote of the citizens on the selection and purchase of sites, the approval of building projects, and the approval of issuance of bonds by which the money is borrowed to pay for the construction project. When such work is technically correct, the school district will be able to sell its bonds and to proceed with little delay and with the prospect of a better bid on the bonds.

Customarily, the school district will employ a *clerk of the works* for each project. Such an employee becomes a record keeper of the actual steps of construction, sub-contracts authorized, change orders authorized, payments made, approvals of work completed. His records provide a basis for reviewing each assignment of responsibility, including the fulfillment of the assignment. Such records represent the control of the school district over the construction activity.

Teachers are educational specialists and have much to contribute to the development of long-range plans and to the planning of specific building projects and alterations. Participation in construction planning

stimulates professional study and growth in that it directs the thinking of the teacher several years into the future. The teacher knows most intimately the specific day-by-day activities undertaken in school rooms and on school grounds; he knows most intimately the goals of education. The teacher comprehends most completely the educational and psychological facts pertinent to deciding what procedures are sound and possible for the age-group of children with whom he regularly works. Teachers need to know enough about new design and new materials to be willing to accept new school housing more on the basis of its accommodation of desirable program rather than on whether it "looks like schoolhouses look," or not.

Teachers helping with planning must realize that the rooms they contemplate are for children and possibly for several other teachers during the life of the building. They have a responsibility in thinking beyond their immediate and personal interests and knowledge. They can best anticipate the curricular experiences that will help achieve the goals of education; therefore, they can list the kinds of activities, the equipment, and the space needs that will make such experiences possible. The architect will translate their reports into blueprints.⁷

Trends in Schoolhouse Construction

The Current Need for Schoolhouse Construction

Schoolhouse construction involves the building of completely new units, new additions to existing units, and the alteration and modernization of existing units. The present need in schoolhouse construction is great. And for that reason, recently there has been wide-spread construction activity which may be expected to continue in so far as labor and materials are available. The need has accumulated through a lag in schoolhouse construction. During the depression years, when local schools were paring their budgets, a few buildings were built with the help of some federal funds. During World War II materials and labor were in short supply, and schoolhouse construction was undertaken largely only under emergency circumstances. In some cases, again, help from federal funds was provided where there was concentration of

⁷ Robert E. Alexander, "The Planning Process Behind the Blueprint," *The American School and University*, Vol. XX (1948-49), pp. 202-215.

population around war plants or military training establishments. Following the easing of war shortages, private and business interests were in a better position to bid quickly for the materials and labor available. This pushed the cost of construction so high that most school districts waited two or three more years in the hope that costs would decline. Thus for a period of nearly twenty years there has not been schoolhouse construction at anything like a normal replacement rate.

Other pressures have increased the demand for school housing. Most urgent of these pressures has been the appearance in the lower school grades of increased enrollments resulting from the increased birth rate which started with the war years of 1941 and 1942. The birth rate has been mounting to an unprecedented high, and school districts can contemplate enormous increases in enrollment over a period running at least to 1965. Another pressure is the widespread acceptability of extending the traditional school program through the kindergarten, nursery school, and junior or community-college age groups. Still another pressure is the changing nature of the educational program itself. The newer developments require more space than has usually been provided for actual group and individual work and more storage space for the wider variety of materials of instruction used.

The Present Opportunity

With so much general construction activity underway and with school building activity on a large enough scale to draw particular attention, the present years should provide rapid progress in construction methods and in schoolhouse design. Knowledge of the materials and methods of construction being developed in connection with all new buildings is of value to the builder of schools. Such a spurt of school building activity draws many new people into it, with an accompanying wider spread of ideas and viewpoints and ways of getting things done. It also puts unusual demand upon the sources of the conventional building materials so that experimentation with new materials is undertaken. With so much building to be accomplished, more effort is put into improving construction methods through labor-saving procedures. This is aided by the fact that demand on available labor is still so great that stress on protecting their jobs through continuing traditional procedures is not so urgent for the workmen.

School districts need to avail themselves of the rapid technical development underway. Wherever the long-range plan calls for building all new buildings in the style of the existing buildings, so that all parts of the city will be treated equally well, the children will eventually lose out. Each new building should be treated as such, with as many of the newer developments included as are sound and within the financial ability of the district. By providing direct local experience with such new facilities, every child in the district stands a better chance of eventually having modern equipment. Even one good classroom in a community shows what is possible; all the deciders should be encouraged to see it.

Recalling the experience in Anonymity and in similar communities, school districts will usually find it advisable to avoid building additions to existing units unless the existing units are new and are designed for expansion. The difference between what is possible in a new building now and what was possible at the time Anonymity created its difficulty is much greater because of the rapid development currently taking place. Where additional space must be provided on existing sites, it would seem better to start the first unit of a new building designed for later expansion and to connect it, if necessary, to the old building by a temporary corridor. Such procedure will eliminate double labor costs of tearing out part of the old to make way for the addition and will allow the use of new design, materials, and procedures in the construction of the new building.

Renovation

Expenditure of excessive funds in trying to make over an old building is inexcusable. Some modernization can be achieved through replacement of lighting fixtures, plumbing fixtures, and furniture. The replacement of school furniture will represent an investment that can be transferred to a new building. Work involving the moving of existing walls is costly and does not generally yield a proportionate gain in building improvement. Schools may wisely invest money in resurfacing floors, in providing acoustical treatment to ceilings, and in the provision of new chalk boards and tack boards. Some improvement to the building may be considered little more than actual maintenance—for instance, weather-proofing and roof repairing. Attention may also be given to the improvement of the school site. A variety of ways of improving existing

school plants may be considered.⁸ In general, modernization should be considered as part of an over-all plan that calls for a substantial share of new construction but also utilizes the advantages offered in some of the existing buildings that will be in use for a number of years.

New Developments in Materials, Methods, and Design

Developments in materials, methods, and designs are numerous and varied. They are in such a state of growth at the present time that no attempt will be made to report them. Some of the trends⁹ that seem to be developing are noted by way of illustration. With technical developments in heating, lighting, and ventilating it is possible for the building to spread out as never before and to experience considerable saving in construction through lowering ceiling heights. The development of more automatic equipment has made possible the dispersal of school plant into neighborhood schools when advisable and without an increased load in custodial services. In years gone by emphasis in construction was placed on the development of fire-resistant materials, but attention has been turned more directly to the safety of the occupants of the building. Such attention is concerned with design that will permit occupants to evacuate rapidly and safely in case of fire.

One of the most notable trends is that to one-story buildings. Such buildings are cheaper to build than those requiring stronger foundations and walls and the additional interior space for stairs. In one-story buildings there is little fire hazard for the occupants. If each room has exterior doors, the building can be evacuated in less than twenty seconds. Since the construction is lighter, it is easier to rebuild after a fire. Such buildings provide the possibility of flexibility in ceiling heights in terms of the purpose and size of the rooms, and also the possibility of better lighting and ventilation through use of sloping roofs and clerestory windows. It is true that such buildings require more site than the two- and three-storied buildings, but there is an accompanying tendency to use much larger sites and to design the sites for varied instructional and activity

⁸ M. A. Stoneman, K. O. Broady, and A. D. Brainard, *Planning and Modernizing the School Plant*, pp. 174-314. See also American Association of School Administrators, 1950 Yearbook, *American School Buildings*, pp. 262-274.

⁹ See "School Plant Trends," pp. 111-160, *The American School and University*, Volume 21, 1949-50; Lawrence B. Perkins and Walter B. Cocking, *Schools*; and Chapters Nine to Fourteen inclusive in *American School Buildings* (1950 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators), pp. 146-241.

uses. This means that schools are moving to the outskirts of the population centers where such space is more easily obtainable.

More attention is focused upon the functional location of rooms and arrangement within rooms. School libraries are centrally located in the classroom areas. English classrooms may be located near the auditorium or near any "little-theater" arrangement that may be included. The print shop may be near the English department and the journalism office. The typing room is set into appropriate relationship. The art department may be located in working relationship with the industrial arts shop, the homemaking department, and the school stage. Relationships between departments are studied so that mutually advantageous location may be planned. Such arrangement of rooms helps break down rigid departmentalization. Departments requiring frequent and heavy deliveries are located with ready access to a service delivery area. Auditorium and gymnasium are located at opposite ends of the buildings to avoid any noise interference when both facilities are used concurrently. The gymnasium is located conveniently to the athletic fields so that dressing rooms and showers may be used for both indoor and outdoor activities. Movement studies are made for analysis of activities to be accomplished within rooms as well, so that the arrangement of equipment and space will provide economy of time and ease of motion.

Design has been directed toward modular construction so that fabricated parts can be assembled with less field equipment and trade labor. This type of construction makes alteration possible with less expense and disruption. Construction is taking advantage of the principle of interchangeability, which contributed so much to the development of American industry, and is extending this principle so that it applies for a variety of materials. Such modular construction also provides a plan of repetitive structural units which may be extended at will, and makes possible the provision of flexible interiors. Some commercial concerns have developed movable partitions which are satisfactory for dividing classrooms. This necessitates designing the building so that the walls dividing classrooms are non-bearing and do not contain trunk service connections.

Modern classroom size provides more floor area per student, and room design permits wide variety in the arrangement of furniture. The older classroom was designed to keep pupils within the line of vision of the teacher; the new is designed to keep all within the line of vision of

all others. This plan gives more emphasis to group work and pupil responsibility and less to teacher domination and individual competitive effort. The furniture in the classroom is movable and can be arranged to serve most effectively the particular subject field and activity under way. It is designed so that it may be easily stacked to free floor space for other use. Furniture is also designed with more attention to the physiology of the student in terms of size, posture, and analysis of characteristic movements and uses. A greater amount of storage space is provided and is designed to serve a variety of materials. Less chalk-board space but more bulletin-board space is provided. Consideration is given to the provision of running water in each classroom. Electrical outlets are available for projection and reproduction equipment, for radio, public address, and television.

Basements and attics are disappearing. This is a result of technical developments in insulation and in forced circulation of heat. Slab foundations are used where terrain permits.

Schools and school sites are designed for community use as well as for regular school use. Auditoriums, gymnasiums, cafeterias, libraries, and other potential meeting rooms are so located that the public may have access to them without disturbing other areas of the building. More attention is given to provision of appropriate parking areas and of many sports areas on the school site, with emphasis on participation rather than on the spectator sports arenas. Space is designed for multiple use so that the school property can be used more hours of the day.

In the school shops and laboratories greater flexibility is provided through general open areas with adjoining alcoves or work areas with specialized equipment. Thus the general shop provides general classroom and activity space surrounded by special equipment for wood-working, machine work, metal working, craft work, painting and finishing, printing, electricity, automotive, upholstery, and the like. The homemaking unit provides a general area with adjoining space for unit kitchens, sewing rooms, fitting rooms, serving rooms, child-care rooms. The commercial unit is surrounded by facilities for typing, duplicating, business machines, bookkeeping, and shorthand. The science areas are related so that facilities and equipment in chemistry, biology, physics, and general science are mutually accessible. The music department has general space and surrounding practice rooms for individuals and small groups. Such small rooms may also be used for listening to recordings and reproductions.

More attention is given to providing work space for teachers so that they may do more fully the professional work for which they are employed. A common teachers' room provides a meeting place where teachers can exchange professional opinions and experiences as they relax. Such a room does much indirectly to promote in-service improvement of the professional staff and represents an important investment in improving the school program. The provision of office space for teachers may eliminate the current practice of assigning the teacher a classroom to be used as office space during free periods. Provision of actual office space for teachers makes such classrooms available for class use throughout the day. It also encourages the office aspects of the teachers work—individual conferences with pupils and parents, committee conferences with fellow teachers, and work on long-range projects for which materials may be left out on the desk undisturbed until completion of the project.

Considerable attention and experimentation are being given to lighting, heating, and color. The shibboleth of unilateral lighting from exterior windows, which had become one of the measures of standardization for approved school plants, is losing out to bilateral lighting so arranged as to avoid glare and to bring diffused natural light into the room. However, with the developments in artificial lighting there is little need to depend on natural light. Emphasis has been turned from how much light is provided to the more sensible question of how well the occupants can see. The lighting fixtures for diffusing light evenly throughout the room without glare are increasing in variety. The advisability of using incandescent or fluorescent lighting is still under discussion, and much information is being obtained in this area. The use of a variety of colors throughout the school is also under study, and the standard colonial brown of many schools is losing favor in preference to various pastel colors which increase the attractiveness of the school as well as improving conditions for good vision. Some experimentation with radiant heating has been accomplished, and additional innovations in school heating systems are to be anticipated.

Less attention is given to ornate or rigid design, and greater flexibility in use of materials is being accepted. Interior walls may be painted or unpainted cinder block, thus avoiding furring, lathing, and plastering. Glass block has been used in a variety of ways. Extended roofs and fins extended between windows for different classrooms have reduced glare, the need of window shades, and the interference of noise when warm

weather encourages open windows. Pre-fabricated materials in larger units pulled into place with the aid of heavy equipment bring reductions in labor costs on the site and give schools in greater degree some advantage of factory mass-production economy.

Operation and Maintenance

Construction of new buildings, additions to existing buildings, and alterations to existing buildings are not the whole school housing effort. It also involves the continuing operation and maintenance of the school plant. The investment in school housing will generally represent the largest of the investments in public property by the local community. The mechanical service systems, the value of the equipment, and the care of the building itself represent an important job calling for faithfulness and technical competency. The custodial staff is more than a squad of broom pushers, mop swingers, and coal shovelers. Their work involves planning and the scheduling of activities by the day, week, month, and year.¹⁰ Their absence may cause more immediate inconvenience than that of any other staff member. Their contribution to the effectiveness of the educational program and of the community use of the school plant is made through cleanliness, orderliness, proper heating and lighting and ventilation, protection of public property, provision of safety, the moving in and distribution of needed supplies and equipment, and the removal of waste materials.

A plan for the work of the custodians will insure regular attention to all of the routine chores of tending the heating system, cleaning the building, caring for the school grounds, distributing supplies, locking and unlocking rooms and exterior doors. When such routine work is well accomplished, the program moves effectively and pleasantly. When it goes poorly, it is obvious, and there is awareness of the need for better service. The custodians regularly go over virtually every part of the physical plant and the equipment. If they are alert to proper conditions, they can correct minor defects before they grow to major proportions and they can avoid much of the repair expenditure otherwise required. A procedure for laying out such a schedule is to list all of the

¹⁰ See A. D. Brainard, *Handbook for School-Custodians*, and Henry H. Linn, Leslie C. Helm, and K. P. Grabarkiewicz, *The School Custodian's Housekeeping Handbook*.

activities anticipated and to classify them as to frequency of repetition (daily, weekly, occasionally); to group them with respect to the area of the building where they are to be done and by kind; to plan the amount of time required and the most appropriate time of day for accomplishment; and to set up a tentative work schedule. Such a schedule should leave open time for minor repairs, for emergency activities, and for inspection.

A good maintenance program provides for the tightening of each bolt as it becomes loose. It anticipates maintenance needs rather than waiting until deterioration or damage requires urgent replacement or repair. Such a program is also planned and scheduled. The initial maintenance plan may be established by a careful inspection of each interior space and of the exterior of each building. Survey sheets for the inspection may provide space for a report on the condition of the painting, walls and ceilings, floors, lighting fixtures and electrical system, plumbing fixtures, heating fixtures, windows and window shades, chalk boards and tack boards, furniture, and other equipment. Attention needed should be noted on the survey sheets as immediate, within the near future, eventually, or no comment. When such information is collected along with information concerning the maintenance needs of exterior painting, waterproofing, repointing, roof repairs, gutters and rain-spouts, and the like, it is possible to lay out a schedule of maintenance work to be accomplished over a period of years. Some authorities have recommended that the budget for maintenance should be 4 or 5 per cent of the total school budget; others have made recommendations based on a per cent of the current value of school property. For practical purposes the amount involved should be sufficient to meet the requirements of a program based on actual inspection and planning for treatment and replacement.

Such a program will provide a regular schedule for interior and exterior painting. It will provide regular service to the various pieces of school equipment. Through such planning the costs of maintenance can be leveled off from year to year, and the building will be kept in proper repair, ever ready for the educational and community service expected from it.

Maintenance work may be done on a contract basis or by maintenance employees of the district. Large school districts frequently employ a maintenance staff of various tradesmen and mechanics con-

tinuously busy keeping the school property in good condition. Some smaller school districts are able to provide diversification on their custodial staff so that some maintenance work may be assigned to them. In such cases it is important to reach an understanding with the local trade unions. By assigning many minor maintenance jobs to the custodial staff it is possible for the local school to place the big maintenance projects out on contract more readily. In one community, for example, a staff of five custodians included individuals who had had previous experience as painter, nurseryman, carpenter, mason, and electrician. By working together on maintenance projects they were able to train each other to some degree in their respective trades.

Appropriate operation of the school plant involves establishment of procedures and regulations for community use of the school buildings. The schools are owned by all the people of the community. They represent a sizeable investment. The best return on the investment can be realized when they are used as much as possible. School facilities should be open to any educational, cultural, or welfare activity that is generally acceptable in the community and open without discrimination to the people of the community. School districts establish rules for the use of school facilities by groups in the community. Such rules should be established on the basis of study of the past use of school facilities in the local community and in corresponding communities, computation of the costs of operating the building for additional use, and a review of the possible agencies that might want to use the building and the variety of purposes for which such requests might be made. In computing the costs of operating parts of the school plant, the figures will include lighting and other electrical power, heating, extra custodial care, and water. They may also include provision of protective supervision.

Rules should provide a set procedure for requesting use of facilities and should authorize the school office to approve or disapprove in accordance with the regulations—referring requests to the board of education only when they are outside the provision of existing regulations. Generally, such use of school facilities must not interfere with the regular school program. Regularly enrolled pupils in the school may be considered to have first claim on the facilities, even in out-of-school hours. When non-profit activities are open without charge or discrimination to the total community, the school may wish to furnish facilities without charge. It may wish to provide facilities for youth groups and

for civic groups, open without discrimination to the particular age level involved, as an encouragement to such groups and as an opportunity to realize greater use of school property. The school authorities will likely avoid permitting use of school property for any activities that compete with organized commercial ventures in the local community or for activities considered objectionable by any substantial portion of the community. Use of school facilities for private profit, for social affairs for private closed groups, or for fund raising other than for the school or for the general community welfare, may be denied altogether or restricted by high rental fees. The school will require responsibility on the part of the user for any damage to property beyond reasonable wear and for appropriate supervision of the activity undertaken.

Services of State Education Department Divisions of Buildings and Grounds

State education departments may maintain a division of buildings and grounds to render services which local school communities cannot afford individually. Such services are particularly likely to be found if the state laws provide special financial aid for schoolhouse construction. Where there is a state division of buildings and grounds, the division should know of the building activities under way throughout the state and be able to share with any school district the total building experience of the state. Such a division will prepare guides to planning and building school facilities. It may inspect and advise with respect to the proposed plans for school housing developments submitted by local communities. (In some states the division has responsibility for approving or rejecting such plans.)

Such a division of the state department should have some responsibility for discouraging such school construction as will tend to make rigid any inefficient school district or school attendance-unit organization. The division ought to be particularly active in providing leadership to stimulate good building maintenance and the development of adequate school facilities for boys and girls throughout the state. It can discharge this function through the bulletins it publishes, through providing consultant services to local school districts, through presenting the benefit of recent building experiences in professional meetings, and through the operation of short courses in schoolhouse operation and maintenance.

Such short courses can be served by college and university extension divisions under the sponsorship of the state education department. A particular responsibility would be the provision of short training courses for school custodians.

Suggested Reading

American Association of School Administrators, *American School Buildings*. Covers just about every feature of school plant planning. Not at all technical. All the discussion is oriented to general, country-wide application rather than to any specific locale. The weakness in this book, as in many others on this topic, is that the architectural aspects are not discussed by architects but by administrators.

American School and University, Vol. 22, 1950. This annual publication is entirely devoted to papers on physical plants and contains hundreds of references and advertisements related to all phases of this general topic.

A. D. Brainard, and others, *Handbook for School Custodians* (Revised and enlarged edition, 1948). This manual presents many detailed directions for school custodians. There are precise specifications of equipment. The educational implications of the custodian's work are treated summarily. There is a complete checklist against which the individual custodian can measure his improvement.

W. W. Caudill, *Your Schools, an Approach to Long-Range Planning of School Buildings*. A tightly conceived, simply presented, and brilliantly printed job of forty-three pages. The author combines a straight line of reasoning, commanding photos and charts, and cartoon work to articulate the complexities of planning education's facilities. It seems especially suited to attempts to educate adults.

D. H. Cooper, *Administrative Planning for School Programs and Plants*. Proceedings of the Sixteenth Annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, Vol. 10. A series of papers ranging from broad proposals for education to specific questions like lighting, landscaping, interior decoration, and architecture. The array is various enough to be of use as a reference.

N. L. Engelhardt, *Planning Secondary School Buildings*. Probably one of the best sources on this topic. Combines a carefully thought out view of curriculum construction and a modern view of physical facilities. All the curriculum innovations of the last three decades are dealt with in the discussion of planning adequate buildings. Floor plans and a long reference list are included.

R. T. Gregg, *Planning Modern School Buildings*. This is a verbatim report of a dozen papers read at the University of Wisconsin's Institute on School Buildings in 1948. The papers are of widely varying topics (walls and ceilings, politics in bond issue campaigns) and uneven in quality.

National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, *Guide for Planning School Plants*. A useful reference in this area because it views school plant planning through the lens of objectives and modern trends in education as well as in terms of construction, blueprints, cost, and the other conventional features of school housing. The first chapter is devoted to the school program and chapter five to the community school; these demonstrate the scope of the guide.

New England School Development Council, *Guide for Evaluating School Buildings*. Pamphlet No. 11. Very thorough and complete check-list of the physical facilities of a school building. Probably of great use to someone conversant with the standards and regulations upon which the list is based.

C. W. Odell, *Standards for Evaluation of Elementary School Buildings* and *Standards for Evaluation of Secondary School Buildings* (75 pages each). These standards are helpful in evaluating both the educational and physical adequacy of the school plant. They are usable by committees of laymen as well as by professional educators.

L. B. Perkins and W. D. Cocking, *Schools*. Probably the most effectively presented argument for modern school building planning. Begins with a dramatic citizen's meeting discussing the need for a new building, then moves to an exposition of the ins and outs of the planning and closes with the building completed. Excellent use of print, photos, and cartoons.

Review of Educational Research (February, 1948). This issue, devoted to school housing, is an excellent resource containing many useful bibliographies.

School Executive (December, 1947). A section from pages 37 to 51 is devoted to school plant planning and provides a good source. The section includes papers by many of the foremost names in this field.

Merle A. Stoneman, K. O. Broady, and A. D. Brainard, *Planning and Modernizing the School Plant*. A study emphasizing the need for examining the nature of the community in which school plant planning is to take place. Such topics as the "small community" are explored in the discussion of the relationship between school plants and community characteristics.

Unit 5 Studies Its Buildings Needs: a Survey of the McLean County Community Unit, School District No. 5; A Public School Building Program for the Geneseo Community Unit District of Henry County; A Study of Public School Building Needs in Springfield, Illinois; A Public School Building Program for the Elementary District of Ottawa, Illinois. These are of one pattern—the community is "surveyed," the "philosophy" is articulated, finances computed, needs specified, and recommendations made. Seeing any one of these is of value, but one will suffice. In every case, the people did the major job of thinking, with experts acting as consultants.

N. E. Viles, *School Buildings: Remodeling, Rehabilitation, Modernization, Repair*, U.S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1950, No. 17. Very detailed, technical guide; probably useful to especially trained administrative personnel. Goes into discussion of walls, ventilation, roofing, termite control, plumbing, etc.

W. A. Whitehead, "Educational-consultant Service in Planning School Buildings." *Educational Research Bulletin* (October, 1947). While this discussion by no means does the entire job, it is useful in that it opens the way to inquiry into the consultant's role in school building planning.

Pupil Transportation

CHAPTER 15

The transportation of pupils to and from school is an operation not planned primarily for its educational values. It is planned, rather, as a means of getting children to a place where they may participate in an educational program. The cost of pupil transportation must be considered as one of the overhead costs of education. Funds used to provide transportation services are, in effect, funds taken out of those available for purchasing education. Such expenditures cannot be avoided by not providing transportation. Without transportation furnished by the school, the costs are either passed on to the parents who are compelled to bring their children to school or used up in bringing school to the children.

An overhead cost of this nature is necessarily a function of the sparsity of population. When pupils are scattered over a wide area, provision for transportation must be made; otherwise, small school attendance units must be operated. The operation of such small units represents greater cost per pupil than does operation of adequately sized units because less complete utilization of staff and of physical facilities is possible. Since such overhead cost is unavoidable in sparsely settled areas, it is important that the decision made by the local community as to operating transportation service or small school attendance units be made on the basis of which will provide the most effective educational program. The transportation facilities should be safe, economical, and reasonably convenient.

Generally, only a fraction of the total school enrollment is transported. When an attempt is made to approach taxi service in the quality of service rendered to some pupils, it is likely that those receiving such

service are favored at the expense of the educational program provided for all of the children of the district. Frequently parents whose children must ride school buses think of the transportation service without relationship to the total educational enterprise. Decisions about transportation to be made by a community should be made with a knowledge of how much more the tax bill will be under one plan than under another and what will be lost to the educational program when funds are drawn off for supporting the more expensive proposals with respect to school transportation. The daily ride on the bus is that of a commuter. Commuters do not go for the ride—they go for what is at the end of the ride. Many times they think of the daily ride as something to be endured rather than keenly anticipated. The transportation service must not present a hardship to the pupils, but improvements beyond the point of reasonable convenience may represent loss to the educational program that can be ill afforded.

School transportation at public expense is a relatively new aspect of school administration. It came into being with district reorganization. The early schools drew pupils from homes no farther away than the smallest child could walk. (Of course, to hear some of the old-timer's reports, small children could walk great distances in those days.) Consequently, most of the legal provisions for school transportation were initially related to legislation for school district reorganization. As a means of avoiding objection to reorganization, the laws providing for consolidation included requirements that transportation be furnished children in need of it. In some cases this need was determined by stating a specified distance, so that all children living more than a mile and a half from school, for instance, must be furnished transportation. Another type of provision was that transportation must be furnished so that no child would be required to walk further to school after reorganization than he had been required to walk prior to consolidation. Although such laws applied at first only to the reorganized districts, they became a pattern of permissive legislation for other types of school districts. When states began sharing the cost of transportation with the local district, the legal qualifications frequently pertained to any pupil living beyond a specified distance but within the school district. Thus, according to the laws of many states, transportation must be furnished in districts organized under certain consolidation procedures and may be provided in other districts.

Safety in School Transportation

In addition to state laws or rules and regulations from the state officials which pertain to whether or not transportation may or must be furnished and what pupils are recognized as entitled to transportation, other decisions at the state level concern the safety standards to be used in approving the vehicles themselves and the requirements for licences or permits to drive school buses. National conferences sponsored by officers from state education departments and by school bus manufacturers have developed reports on standards for school buses and on standards of operation for safety.¹ Such standards have come to be more and more uniformly adopted by states or by state officials throughout the country. The present school bus is yellow or orange. It has an all-steel body and all windows are of safety glass. It has flasher signals for stops and turns and an arm stop signal that can be extended from the left side of the bus. Its seats face front, and heaters provide sufficient warmth in cold weather. In some states a regular schedule of inspection of school buses is carried out for the sake of public protection.

Safety in school transportation requires more than safe equipment. It requires safe bus operators, safety habits on the part of pupils and the general public. In deciding upon the requirements for a license or a permit to operate a school bus, each state must determine the factors that will assure safety. In deciding whom to employ as operators of local school buses, each school district must think in terms of safety and efficiency. Such factors generally concern the physical condition of the individual, his demonstrated ability to operate the vehicle, and may *consider age as somewhat related to degree of judgment. Local districts* may give further consideration to the moral character of the individual and to his ability to get along with others agreeably. The local district may also require a periodic medical examination of drivers. Both at the state and at local levels provisions have been made for the training of bus drivers. Individuals may receive training under a local transportation director. Conferences for bus drivers are held under the direction of state departments of education, and printed materials are available from such departments.

¹ National Conference on School Bus Standards, 1948, *Minimum Standards for School Buses*.

A few years ago it was not uncommon in some districts to have a parent or a teacher ride the bus in addition to the driver for the purpose of "keeping order" among the pupils. This need for an adult monitor has been alleviated in several ways. The bus drivers have been given better training and more authority over pupils. Better selection of drivers has enabled districts to secure individuals who could assume more responsibility for pupil conduct and safety on the bus. Children themselves have learned how to ride the buses through experience and have also had training in school bus safety. School bus safety patrols have been organized in a number of districts.² The patrol members are responsible for helping pupils on and off the bus safely and for appropriate conduct while en route. The patrol or the driver may function in signaling the youngster to cross the highway to board the bus or after leaving the bus. This problem of crossing the highway may be otherwise met by having the pupil waiting for the bus on the proper side of the highway prior to its arrival and by asking the pupil to remain at the side of the highway until the bus is five hundred feet up the road and the road is clear of oncoming traffic from either direction before crossing.

Training automobile operators in general to observe safety precautions in connection with school transportation is another problem. States enact laws requiring that the operator shall not pass a school bus stopped to load or unload passengers. Through discussing such highway safety problems with pupils in school some of this training is carried home to the adults. Roadside signs give further direction. The problem involves educating motor vehicle operators to be especially alert during the hours that school buses are on the roads, to heed the laws with respect to stopping or passing, and to give courteous consideration to signals of pupil patrol members or of school bus operators.

Efficiency in Transportation Operation

The big costs in school transportation are those involved in owning the bus and in hiring the driver. Owning the bus, whether or not it ever moves a mile or carries a pupil, involves the cost of the bus, the insurance on the bus, the license for the bus, and storage. The employment

² "Pupil Patrols in Elementary and Secondary Schools," *N. E. A. Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXVIII, No. 1, (February, 1950), pp. 18-20.

of a driver for the bus and the cost of insurance on him represent the other big items in school transportation. The cost of fuel, oil, grease, anti-freeze, tires, and repairs represents but a minor part of the total cost. Since this is true, it is obvious that economy is to be achieved by carrying the most pupils and covering the most miles of route per bus possible. If the same bus can be used for more hours and over greater distances, a more economical return is achieved from the investment. Since it takes one driver per bus whether it is a five-passenger automobile or a fifty-passenger vehicle, the per pupil share of the driver's salary is smaller the larger the bus.

Capacity of Buses

There are limits to the desirable size of the bus. One of the limitations results from the sparsity of pupil population. The bus should provide seats for the number of pupils available, and any extra space represents waste. There is a limit to the distance a bus can travel on a trip. This distance has generally been expressed in terms of the maximum amount of time pupils should be en route to or from school. The limits generally accepted are subjective. They might be stated briefly as not picking up the first child until he has had breakfast at the traditional American hour, getting the last child home before dark, and requiring no youngster to ride more than an hour. For the sake of economy the bus should be big enough to carry the largest number of children to whose homes it can be routed within these limitations.

Another limitation is that of the condition of roads and the capacity of bridges. A bus may not be heavier than the capacity of bridges it is compelled to cross in serving its route. The width of roads will limit the size of buses. The condition of roads affects the length of time it takes for a bus to cover the same distance and may thus represent a limit on the size of the bus. In the routing of buses the effect of such limitations is lessened in some instances by the use of feeder and express routes so that large buses stay on the main roads and smaller buses weave between the main roads to bring pupils out to meet the bigger buses. This may prove to be more economical than running the small bus and driver all the way into the school center, with the need for several such small buses to travel the same road the last part of the way.

Routing of Buses

In the routing of buses it is necessary to have maps of the district showing the kinds and locations of roads, the location and capacity of bridges, the location of pupils or of houses from which pupils may be drawn. (The use of pin maps showing location of pupils was discussed in relation to attendance services in Chapter 9 and to planning school housing in Chapter 14.) If the area of the district is hilly, it is also helpful to have the grade of the road and the curves indicated. Bus routes are usually planned in terms of the location of pupils during the year when they are first laid out, and subsequent modifications are made as pupil population shifts in location. It might be feasible to lay out bus routes in terms of locations of dwellings throughout the district, since each dwelling is potentially a home for one or more school pupils. With bus routes relatively fixed, as school buildings are definitely located, the bus routes represent an extension of school housing. People with school children moving into a community will become alert to finding out how far they are from the school bus route, just as they usually inquire how far they are from the school building.

For achieving economy and safety in the routing of buses several principles have been observed. Some of these are obvious. Reduce as much as possible the distances empty buses travel. Avoid in so far as possible having more than one bus cover the same miles of road. Avoid spurs where the bus goes up a distance, turns around, and returns to the route by the same piece of road. The turning around is hazardous and time-consuming. The backtracking covers a section of the route a duplicate time without bringing the bus closer to more pupils.

One of the most efficient plans of routing has been that of setting up circular or looping routes which start from the school and return to the school. The bus starts picking up pupils as soon as it has crossed the boundary, from the attendance center, beyond which transportation is to be furnished. As it makes its route, it picks up pupils all along the route coming back into the school. By making the route in the same direction on the return trip, those who rode the longest in the morning will have the shortest ride in the evening.

In some cases, as in canyon country, the circle or loop is impossible. Houses may be clustered along a few main roads, all leading into the

center like spokes of a wheel. If the bus starts from the school, it must travel empty out to the end of the route before starting to pick up pupils. This has been overcome in some instances by providing storage for the bus at the end of the line so that it starts there in the morning, is at the school during the day, and returns to the end of the line for the night. If the driver also lives at the end of the line and has occupation at the school center for the hours school is in session, a real economy is possible. If drivers do not have such a schedule or place of residence, it may be necessary to use a small vehicle before and after each run to deliver the drivers to the buses or back to their homes.

In the elimination of spurs and turning points, districts consider the desirability of asking pupils to walk distances up to one-half mile to meet the bus. In some areas waiting stations or shelters are provided. Where roads are laid out on section lines and where pupils are required to walk up to one-half mile to meet the bus, it can be so routed as to eliminate completely any spurs except where bridge capacities or road conditions make the route impassable.

In order to extend the time a particular bus is used and the amount of time for the driver, a procedure of dual routing has been developed in some districts. This is not to be confused with double-tripping, where the bus simply makes two routes or more before and after school each day. With such double-tripping some of the pupils have to wait for school to open or wait for the bus to come back for them after school; this represents a real inconvenience to the pupils and a problem of supervision for the school.

In a system of dual routing the bus makes substantially the same route twice before school and twice after school. Elementary youngsters are picked up on one trip and secondary school youngsters on the other, with the school schedule so staggered as to open school or close school for each group at a time appropriate to the bus arrivals and departures. For example, in one school district the junior and senior high-school classes start at 8:30 in the morning and dismiss at 2:45 in the afternoon. The elementary school classes start at 9:15 and dismiss at 3:30. The kindergarten and first grade dismiss in time so that bus pupils from those rooms can ride home on the 2:45 bus. High-school pupils staying for activities may ride home on the elementary bus trip or on a special extra run made for that purpose in the late afternoon. During the war years when bus equipment was in short supply, many districts re-planned their

school transportation systems to use fewer buses. It was not uncommon to find that by shifting from single routing to dual routing the number of vehicles and drivers could be reduced by 35 to 40 per cent, although the daily mileage was almost doubled. The doubling of daily mileage seems like wastefulness; however, when it is remembered that the big costs in transportation are buses and drivers rather than operational supplies and maintenance, it is understandable how considerable reductions in total transportation costs are achieved by dual routing.

When varying opening and dismissal hours for school sessions are acceptable, it is possible to achieve transportation economies like those gained from a system of dual routing. In some situations greater utilization of buses and drivers is achieved by the operation of a transportation system serving several attendance units whose opening and dismissal hours are appropriately staggered. This may be within a local school district of considerable size or within a county area where the county buses serve several districts.

School Bus Drivers

The employment of school bus drivers represents another area in which attention to transportation costs may be profitable. School bus driving is a part time job, and it is difficult to conceive of any situation in which it could be made a full time job. The schools cannot afford to pay full time salaries for part time work. In some cases schools have attempted to solve this problem by combining bus driving with janitorial and maintenance work to create a full time job. A main difficulty with this arrangement lies in the fact that individuals so employed are at the school plant only while school is in session; therefore, they cannot do much janitorial or maintenance work on the building because it is in use during the hours they are available. Other solutions have been the use of teachers or pupils as drivers, as an extra duty for extra pay beyond their regular connection with the school. Other solutions have been the use of semi-retired individuals, of farmers or operators of small businesses or crafts who can make their own schedules, or of women.

Purchase and Maintenance of Buses

Economy may also be achieved in the purchase and maintenance of school buses and supplies. The mass purchasing-power available when a state buys the buses, as in North Carolina, is reflected in a much lower

unit price per bus. In New York various governmental subdivisions, including the schools, have the right to purchase fuel and equipment on state contract prices. Such prices are established by bids accepted for actual purchases which the state government will make for its direct use. Purchases by governmental subdivisions can be made from the successful bidders at the same prices, or are usually possible from other distributors willing to meet the state contract price for the privilege of doing business with the governmental subdivision.

School bus maintenance becomes a real problem for the small school district. In the small communities the equipment and mechanics are not available for repair work, and the small school district is forced to take its bus to the city or to call for help from some concern in the city. Where the district operates enough buses, it becomes feasible to own and operate a school bus garage with adequate equipment for most repair jobs and with one or more mechanics employed to do the work.

District Ownership of Buses versus Private Contract

The question of district ownership of school buses as opposed to private contract for transportation services has been explored as a possible area of economy, with varying results. In general, lower per pupil costs are claimed for district ownership, but the basis upon which comparisons are made is not always completely equitable. One of the two biggest discrepancies is the cost of administrative direction of the transportation system furnished by the private contractor or by the school administrator. When direction is furnished by the school administrator, it is not generally charged to the cost of transportation, as it is when furnished by the contractor. The other lies in the fact that the buses owned by the contractor are taxable property for the school district but are not so taxable when owned by the district. Even though equitable comparisons might show that costs were generally lower under district ownership, such comparisons would not always hold for any specific community. Near large population centers where street buses are operated, the public service company can frequently provide school bus services at a unit cost as low as or lower than that which could be attained by district ownership. Such companies have drivers available, they own transportation equipment, they purchase in quantity, and they operate their own garages. On the other hand, in small communities where many retired farmers live, it is possible to employ bus drivers at

rates that may give the school district a considerable advantage in costs.

It would seem that the question of district ownership *versus* private contract should be settled on grounds in addition to those of cost alone. The decision does not have to be either district ownership or private contract, but may be a combination. A district wanting to move toward district ownership might start with owning one bus and arranging for the rest through private contracts. The operation of one bus by the district might well serve as a basis for determining whether contract costs were reasonable or not. The very fact that the district was willing to enter the business of bus operation might serve to keep the contractor in line with respect to service and costs. The biggest advantage of district ownership over private contract lies in the area of control. When the school owns the buses, it is easier to arrange for any change in routes related to shifts in pupil locations. It is easier to change the hours of operation when occasion demands an earlier school closing or other shift in time schedule. The buses are readily available for field trips and for student activities. It is for the sake of such useful flexibility that the school district should consider owning some or all of the buses needed for its transportation service.

Bus Insurance

School districts generally carry insurance on their school buses. Such insurance commonly provides coverage for public liability and property damage, theft, and comprehensive coverages for damage to the vehicle other than collision. The training of drivers, children, and other motorists; the standards of safety prescribed for school buses; and the policy of canceling school sessions when travel is extremely hazardous should put school buses in a favorable classification with respect to collision insurance. Since this has not been common practice with insurance companies, few school districts find it sound financially to invest money in collision insurance. (Some people also argue that theft of a school bus is so improbable that theft insurance should cover only theft of parts or of articles from the bus and not the theft of the bus itself.)

In some states (Illinois, for example) the legal principle of non-liability of governmental subdivisions applies to school districts. In such a case the district cannot be sued for property damage or public liability; hence the district is purchasing nothing when it buys liability insurance. Inasmuch as district boards of education have felt a moral obligation, in

case of such accidents, the application of the principle has retarded extension of district ownership of school buses. Under private contract the contractor could be held liable. In some instances insurance companies have sold liability and property damage insurance written with a clause stating that the company would not refuse to pay claims on the grounds that the district was not liable under the law. The validity of this clause has yet to be tested in court. (A test would involve suit for payment against an insurance company which had refused payment on the grounds that the district was not liable even though such clause had been written into the policy.)

Accounting

With the development of school transportation systems, special accounting procedures are being devised. Accurate accounts for each bus would show date of purchase, size, model and make, number of miles on regular routes, number of miles on extra trips, number of pupils carried; payments for gasoline, oil, grease, chains, anti-freeze, tires, repairs (both parts and labor), insurance, license, driver's salary; and amortization of costs or a corresponding figure representing depreciation in the value of the vehicle. From such records the total cost of transportation can be computed. Unit costs can be considered in terms of per pupil, per mile, per pupil-mile, per seat-mile, and per bus. Such records of spending experience can be compared with the experience of other school districts, and the operating costs of the various buses owned by the local district can be compared. Such analysis may provide the basis for seeking more efficient bus drivers. It will also help in decisions about scheduling repair and replacement of school buses.

Extra Trips for School Buses

School districts operating after-school programs of student activities may see fit to schedule late afternoon consolidated bus runs to serve the bus pupils who wish to remain at the school for such activities. If the school district has enough of a fleet of buses to warrant one or more standby buses for emergency use, these buses can be made available for field trips conducted in connection with the instructional program. The school buses may also be used in transporting pupils to festivals and concerts of various sorts. A few schools have found that a special bus

schedule on the evening of a Parent-Teacher Association meeting has been helpful to the attendance. Some school districts have made occasional use of school buses to take teachers or school patrons to visit other school programs or to observe new school buildings. It is obvious that more such use of school buses will be made when the district owns and has control over the vehicles. In connection with such use, the district should be sure that the insurance policies are valid.

Services of State Education Departments

In state departments of education various services are provided in connection with school transportation. In some states the claims for state aid for school transportation involve some inspection of the private contracts or of the manner in which the local district renders transportation service. The accumulation of figures from these reports makes it possible for the state office to give information about common practices and experiences helpful to those responsible for local operation. The state office may give help in the training of bus drivers and in the preparation of material for use in the safety training of pupils and adults. The state office will provide a list of the standards of safety and convenience to be followed in purchasing school buses, and may provide assistance to the local district in more efficient routing of buses.

Suggested Reading

National Conference on School Bus Standards, *Minimum Standards for School Buses*. Prepared by educators, safety experts, and bus manufacturers; presents detailed specifications for safe school buses.

W. C. Reusser and A. D. Waterman, "Transportation of Pupils," *Review of Educational Research* (October, 1949). Too short to be of much use itself; but contains a bibliography of some twenty items.

Door Stack, "School Transportation," *School Executive* (February, 1947). Included in the "educational planning" feature. The entire feature seems an excellent resource, covering the growth of school transportation, training bus drivers, laying out routes, selecting buses, maintenance, and cost.

M. E. Stapley, *Suggested Procedures for Securing Economical and Efficient Pupil Transportation*. Bulletin of the School of Education, Vol. 23, No. 4, Indiana University, 1947. Specifically deals with Indiana problems but may have general use as an illustration of various techniques.

How to Supply and Equip the School

CHAPTER 16

An important feature of the national convention of the American Association of School Administrators is the exhibit of school supplies and equipment. It is considered so essential a part of the convention that it must be located adjacent to the meeting halls for the convention. Consequently, the number of cities that can accommodate the convention is limited; few have facilities for providing sufficient exhibit space conveniently close to adequate meeting room space.

In the 1950 exhibit at Atlantic City nearly three hundred commercial companies and institutional agencies participated. The display of school equipment occupied 90,000 square feet of floor space. It included items as large as school buses and pre-fabricated steel school buildings and as small as phonograph needles. The items displayed were classified into one hundred different groups. There were instructional equipment and supplies for general use and for use in such special areas as art, music, science, industrial arts, homemaking, and business education. There were exhibits of classroom and office furniture, clock systems, public address systems, cafeteria equipment, floor mops, chalk boards. Special occasion equipment and supplies such as academic gowns and diplomas were on display. Equipment and supplies were shown for office, building maintenance, transportation, library, health services, testing, instruction of exceptional children. The size of the exhibit, the variety of materials displayed, the different kinds and sizes of companies with plants and offices scattered so widely geographically, were

impressive. School needs create a vast amount of business. The exhibit gives ready evidence that some of the money taken from private enterprise by way of school taxes is promptly returned to private enterprise as school supplies and equipment are purchased.

This vast array represents tremendous change from the old school slate or the days when Abe Lincoln worked his examples on the back of a shovel. Many people are responsible for the development of the equipment of the modern school. Some ideas were borrowed from business, industry, and entertainment and were adapted to school use. Many ideas arose as teachers, custodians, office workers, and other school employees adapted new material or equipment to school use. Other ideas arose as teachers, custodians, office workers or other school employees found material or equipment unsatisfactory or altogether lacking for accomplishment of specific tasks confronting them. Such individuals planned a form or device or formula for tryout. The initial production was worked out in the janitor's work room, the school print shop, the duplicating room, the industrial arts shop, the art room, or the science laboratory. It was tried and modified and tried again. When such ideas were sufficiently developed to show promise, production could be turned over to a commercial company for exploitation. In some cases originators of ideas were able to organize new commercial companies for development and exploitation of the idea.

School systems have not made a practice of staffing or otherwise providing for research and development of equipment and supplies, although big city school systems might well afford to do so. The development and testing of equipment and supplies have been left largely to companies that produce and distribute them. Representatives of such companies have been alert to innovations created by school employees as well as to needs expressed by employees for which some solution was required. Such companies have used teachers and other school employees as consultants in working for the best educational adaptation. They use materials-testing laboratories and specialists in design. Frequently supply items or pieces of equipment have been tested in actual school situations prior to commercial distribution.

The development of almost any item represents an interesting combination of many factors. In the change from the old log bench to the variety of seating arrangements for the modern school, it is possible to trace a change of educational philosophy, a study of human physiology,

an evolution in school organization, the influence of new materials and of new methods of fabrication, a new conception of graceful design. In addition to all these factors has been the tryout of new classroom furniture in school situations so that the desires of the user are also considered. The salesman of classroom furniture sells more than the furniture: he sells new conceptions of education and of child development. Such considerations are reflected in the development of the many and diverse items used by schools. Some of the developments represent improvements in ways of doing the same jobs. In other cases they represent the introduction of changes in teaching or doing office work or maintaining the school buildings. As companies have developed and distributed improved supplies and equipment, they have changed and aided education.

Determining the Amount, Kind, and Quality of Supplies and Equipment

In general, supplies are considered to be those items that are used up, and equipment is considered to be items used over and over, with repair as necessary. The classification of specific items is not as simple as this. Such classification is more usually the problem of an accountant, and the rest of us might do well to consider supplies and equipment simply as educational materiel. The accountant's difficulty arises from his classification of expenditures, by which payments for supplies are to be shown as current expenses, payments for equipment are to be shown as capital expenditures, and payments for repair of equipment are to be shown as current expenses. The distinction becomes important only as an accounting or reporting problem, but it creates real difficulty at that point.

Two approaches have been commonly used in suggesting guides to local school officials: State educational departments have furnished lists of specific supply and equipment items. Writers have suggested rules by which the determination is to be made. An example of such rules is the explanation made by the U.S. Office of Education¹ concerning the basis on which items listed were so classified:

¹ "List of Supplies and Equipment," Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education.

1. If the value of the item was less than \$10, usually it was classified as supply.
2. If the item was of such a nature that it could be consumed or worn out in a period of one year, it was classed as supply.
3. When an item was a tangible investment—a machine, apparatus, or a set of small articles wherein the parts were replaceable or repairable retaining its identity as a whole over a period of years, it was classed as equipment.

The same document illustrates the difficulty of applying such guides:

. . . One example of the difficulty of interpretation was in the matter of clothing. Undergarments and shoes were generally considered to be supplies as they were personal items usually worn out at the end of a year. Costumes and uniforms that could be repaired and used again were classed as equipment. In general, repair parts and items used in repair or replacement as parts of permanent equipment or plant were considered supplies. A wrench was determined to be a supply item; however, a set of wrenches was classified as equipment.

The document lists nearly 1400 different supply items and 900 equipment items. In attempting to achieve accuracy in this listing, the Office of Education made such fine distinctions as the classification of "silverware (tableware, flatware)" as a supply since pieces are frequently lost or pilfered, whereas "silverware (holloware, cups, plates)" is listed as equipment. For this discussion we shall treat equipment and supplies in accordance with the general distinction and leave the discussion of hairline cases to the accountants.

Guides in the determination of the amount, kind, and quality of educational materiel are as follows: inventories, records of use in the past, records of use in other schools, estimates provided by those who will use or will supervise the use of the material, recommendations of the vendors, data from studies of use, and recommendations of specialists and professional organizations. Sheerly on the basis of local records it is possible to start with a quantity estimate of supplies. A per-pupil expenditure for supplies can be obtained by division. It is also possible to determine by division how many sheets of each kind of paper, how many pencils, what amount of liquid soap or paper towels, what value of chemical supplies, were used per pupil. It is possible to compute how much floor wax or how many floor brushes were used per thousand

square feet of floor space. Such quantity quotients can be used as a basis for estimating future needs providing there is no change in the kinds of supplies used or in the quality or in the method of use. Such quantity quotients overlook any kind of program change that might call for more or less paper or a different kind of paper. They fail to raise such a question as the degree to which economy might be achieved through using less of a better quality of floor wax, even though it costs more per gallon, or more of a poorer quality. Quantity figures for supplies based upon the record of use are a good starting point but will need modification in terms of these other considerations.

The inventory or purchase record of equipment does not provide as sound a basis for determining the need for equipment as it does for estimating the quantity of supplies to be ordered. Equipment may be purchased and allowed to remain idle. The number of new typewriters needed is dependent upon the schedule by which they will be used, the number of typing students, and the condition of the typewriters presently owned. The amount of new equipment needed is dependent, then, upon the equipment presently available, the use being made of it, and the failure of the operation because of lack of other equipment. This method of judging need for equipment involves reliance upon the user of the equipment or upon the person supervising such use. Such reliance may depend upon occasional reports and informal comments, but cannot be left solely to chance. Staff members should always have opportunity for expressing satisfaction or dissatisfaction with equipment and supplies used or lacking. They should participate more systematically in requisitioning supplies and equipment for immediate use or for a coming school year, in selecting new items, and in evaluation studies of current use of educational materiel.

Each school employee trained in the field of his assignment should be competent to determine what supplies and equipment he needs to accomplish the work for which he is employed. In so far as possible each employee should be provided with the quantity, kind, and quality of supplies and equipment he deems necessary for his work. But this is not to be accomplished by simply instructing each employee to go to the stores and get what he needs as he needs it, charging the items to the school. Shopping in such fashion takes much of the time needed by the employee in accomplishing his work. Paying in such fashion for piecemeal purchases increases the cost of supplies and equipment to the

extent that insufficient money is left available and activities have to be curtailed. Teachers, janitors, stenographers, and other employees would soon become frustrated in attempting to carry out this function for which they were neither employed nor trained. Such employees expect their employer to provide the supplies and equipment. The procurement of educational material becomes one of the specialized functions of the central office. And yet these same employees, who do not want to do the purchasing nor the paying, do want to have available the kind and amount of equipment and supplies they feel they need. All such employees need opportunity to become familiar with stock needed. Some regular provision for examining stock should be made.

When the problem of procurement is one related solely to the number of individuals to be served or the amount of space to be cared for, it is possible to depend upon the accounting procedures suggested above. When procurement is simply a matter of furnishing additional amounts of the same kind and quality of supplies to replenish stock used up, or of equipment and supplies to extend the program, the purchasing agent has simply to compute the amount and re-order. However, the problem may involve new material for a new program, new material to meet changes in the existing program, or even the curtailment of supplies because of reduction of available funds. The purchasing agent is concerned with many items generally used throughout the system and with a variety of items used only by certain individuals or specific departments. With respect to items used generally throughout the system, there should be an attempt to standardize as to kind and quality. If each elementary teacher insisted upon having a different kind of pencil for her pupils, the advantage of mass purchasing would be entirely lost. The problem of storing the pencils would be difficult unless each teacher were to store her supply in her classroom. As teachers ran out of pencils, they would have to borrow from some other teacher a different kind of pencil, and the office force would be overworked with issuing small orders frequently. If all the teachers can agree upon one or two or a few kinds of pencils to be used, quantity purchases can be made. A central supply of such pencils can be maintained on which any teacher may readily draw and thus have available the particular kind and quality of pencil used in her room.

One of the functions of the central office, then, is to achieve as much standardization as possible in supplies and equipment items generally

used. If this is done with the help of an advisory committee of employees concerned, the purpose of such standardization is understood and better accepted. It is also possible, then, to try out deviations from the standard in some segment of the school as a means of determining what improvements could be made in kind, quality, and cost. Under an advisory committee arrangement such a deviation is then seen as beneficial to the whole system rather than as favoritism or imposition on the particular employees trying out the different items. Such experimentation is valuable not only because of improvement in furnishing supplies and equipment but probably more because it directs attention of all employees to the most appropriate use of supplies and equipment. It may thus improve instructional service, maintenance and operation of the building, food service, office work.

In a similar manner it is possible to establish use studies of supplies and equipment. Such studies, while related to determination of the amount, kind, and quality of supplies, go beyond the scope of such determination. They involve questions of the service itself and should therefore become studies in which the employees themselves are involved rather than the studies of an "efficiency expert." Since the supply item is so small a part of the total budget, such studies should not be undertaken solely on a basis of cutting costs. The nuisance factor of such studies may create a bigger loss through reducing teaching effectiveness because of irritation and extra time requirements. Use studies should be undertaken only when there is likelihood that they will lead to improvement of morale and effectiveness.

If such an advisory committee is established or if such special studies are made from time to time with respect to items generally used, it is to be expected that individuals or departments using special items will also give consideration to similar appropriate studies. The central office will be forced to know the area of general supplies and equipment thoroughly, but is in a position to depend more directly on specific employees involved in selection of special supplies and equipment.

Just as the large mail-order house catalogue may become the "wish book" for countless American families, so do the general and special catalogues of school supplies and equipment become one source of new ideas for American schools. The central office is stimulated by the salesmen, the catalogues, the advertisements in professional journals, and by reports of use in other schools. The office should maintain a central file

of catalogues available to any staff member. Such file ought to be classified under "general" and under such special fields as office, science, library, athletic, music, speech and dramatics, art, industrial arts, and the like. It should be easily available so that staff members may browse if they wish or may come in at any time to hunt information about items to meet a specific need.²

When sales representatives have new items, articles, or listings of supplies or equipment to show, or when they are seriously seeking evaluation of items in use or needs for which items may be developed, they should have opportunity to talk to school employees who will be using the items. In so far as possible school employees using such items should have opportunity to meet the sales representatives when they wish to see what is new in the field, discuss utilization and modification of items currently used, or suggest need for development of new items. In the case of general school supplies such experience should be the lot of an advisory committee which may be established, or of regular teachers selected at random. Frequently, items purchased by central offices have not met the needs of teachers or other employees and have therefore been wasted. Salesmen of special supplies and equipment should be received by the user of the special supplies so that the central office will have the best guidance as to kind, quality, and amount of janitor supplies, office supplies, science supplies, cafeteria supplies, industrial arts supplies, art supplies, and the like. All salesmen, however, should clear through the central office of each school building in which they call. In this way the central office can provide protection for employees against intrusion at inappropriate times and against sales representatives who seek interviews primarily to maintain good will or special influence.

The formal procedure for determining amount, quality, and kind of supplies and equipment is the use of requisitions. Some school systems make use of an annual requisition from users or supervisors. In simplest form the employee is asked to list what and how much is needed for next year's operation. Such procedure is likely to result in inadequate listing of needs by many of the individuals, and those listed will be in such a variety of forms that it will be difficult to consolidate the lists for

² *The American School and University*, published annually by the American School Publishing Corporation, New York, is a valuable reference in this connection. Much of the volume is devoted to advertisements of school supplies and equipment. The company offers help to any individual seeking information about any product whether advertised or not.

effective purchasing. A more usual system is that of supplying each individual with an appropriate form on which a list of standard items and a statement of specifications³ for each are included, with space provided for the employee to indicate the quantity of each he will need. Sufficient space is allowed for listing of additional items not included. Another procedure more generally used in larger schools is for the central office to maintain a supply of standard items and to call for no complete annual requisition from employees. Changes are accomplished as use studies, advisory committee opinions, immediate requisition forms, failure to use items stocked, and other indications of need for change arise.

In most schools it is good practice to have employees fill out requisitions for supplies drawn for immediate use from central storage or to be ordered for immediate use if they are not available from central storage. The accumulation of such immediate use requisitions will provide a record of use by employees to which either the employee or the central office may refer in considering future needs or in evaluating past use.

Purchasing Procedures

In the purchase of supplies and equipment economic advantage is sought through quantity purchases. In smaller school systems as many supplies as possible are purchased for a year at a time in order to achieve such savings. During the 1930's, when schools were hard-pressed for funds, school systems in some sections of the country pooled their supply orders through coöperative purchasing agreements. Quantity purchasing will represent no saving if the amount purchased is so great that it will not all be used before it starts to deteriorate. Nor will it represent economy if more supplies are purchased than can be accommodated in storage rooms so that the excess fills school space intended for other use, or requires provision of extra space and calls for extra handling. Quantity purchases of items not perishable and for which storage space is available are frequently based on the standard

³ Professional associations, state education departments, colleges of education, and writers in the field have drawn up various lists of standard equipment desirable for school shops, kindergarten rooms, libraries, science laboratories, school offices, health service rooms, school cafeterias, and the like. Such lists may serve as a basis for checking the adequacy of present equipment and for determining additional equipment needed.

items of the annual composite requisition. When a central store of supplies is maintained, such quantity purchases may be made at any time quantity amounts of stored supplies are needed to replenish the stock of particular supplies.

To profit most from the practice of quantity purchasing, it is customary to seek competitive bids from appropriate vendors. The bid request should require a guarantee that the vendor can and will deliver at the price quoted. It should also include the provision that the school district may accept or reject any part or all parts of any or all bids. When the list of supplies on which competitive bids are requested is stated in terms of brand names, the field of competition is restricted to distributors selling the brands specified. If the list of specifications can be phrased in descriptive terms other than brand names, a wider field of competition may be invited. Such accurate descriptions as specifications may be derived from statements of state or federal purchasing authorities or from the U.S. Bureau of Standards. Frequently, samples are requested along with the bids, although the samples furnished are generally sufficient only for inspection and not for real testing.

Purchasing on the basis of competitive bidding is especially advantageous when the market is a buyer's market. When it is a seller's market, the purchaser may frequently do as well through buying on the basis of catalogue or advertised prices, saving the time and expense of requesting bids, examining them, and acting on them. When quantity purchases are made for the purpose of maintaining the central store of supplies, it is customary to advertise for competitive bids if a contract is to be issued for supply of the item or items for a year. If such a contract is not to be negotiated, it may be more desirable to purchase at the current market price whenever the market is advantageous to the purchaser on the particular item on which stock needs to be replenished. Where laws require competitive bidding on purchases in excess of stated amounts, this decision may not be available to the purchasing agent.

Orders are issued for smaller amounts in the case of perishable items, items for which there is critical immediate need, or items used in small quantity and only occasionally. The home economics department will likely require groceries from day to day when food preparation units are being undertaken by pupils. Such items are purchased day by day. Industrial arts shops with limited storage racks for lumber, paints,

screws, nails, and the like will order for immediate delivery as the supply runs low and there is need for it. Departments or individual staff members using supplies of such a nature may be given authorization to order for the school from designated vendors and will report orders issued to the central office. Usually a standard purchase order form used uniformly throughout the school is recommended, so that the central office has an accounting procedure to determine that it does have knowledge of all orders issued and, hence, of all obligations upon the school's funds.

In a like manner bids may be sought on equipment purchases when either a large quantity or a large sum of money is involved. When there is immediate and urgent need for equipment, time is not allowed for inviting, receiving, examining, and awarding bids. In the purchases of either supplies or equipment when other factors are favorable, the vendor awarded the order should be one who can give assurance of service in case supplies are unsatisfactory or equipment needs adjustment or repair. Expediency of delivery also becomes a consideration when items are ordered to meet immediate need. For such reasons, and only for such reasons, consideration may be given to placing the order with a local distributor in preference to placing it at a lower price with a non-local distributor. The procedure for issuing purchase orders is discussed in the following chapter.

Inventory and Storage of Supplies and Equipment

All permanent and replaceable items of equipment should be listed in an inventory of school equipment. In some schools such inventory is continuous, with various kinds of items recorded on separate cards. Elsewhere, the inventory may be taken periodically. In the latter case it is generally taken according to the rooms in which the equipment is located. Some publishing houses provide an annual inventory form on which, at the end of each year, each school employee lists all equipment in rooms under his charge. The continuous inventory kept in a card file generally shows the name and description of each piece of equipment, the quantity owned, the model or code number of each piece, the date of purchase, the time of purchase, and the room location of the equipment.

Inventory cards may also show dates and costs of repairs to equipment.

The information contained in the accurate inventory provides a basis for knowing the amount and status of present equipment. This information is useful in determining equipment to be purchased, and is necessary in determining the amount of insurance to be carried on school equipment. It is valuable in any study of use of equipment, and represents prudent custodianship of public property. Equipment not in use should not be kept in dead storage for long periods of time. It is better to dispose of it than to load up attics and basement space with material never again to be used. The inventory will show the status of such equipment.

Teachers should be expected to store in or near their classrooms only the supplies needed for relatively immediate use. General supplies can then be kept in a central storeroom or warehouse from which withdrawals may be made as individuals have need for them. Special supplies should be stored under the charge of the individual or department making use of them. Shelving and space provisions in the central storeroom should be designed for the supplies to be kept. As supplies are received, they should be placed with labels right-side-up and visible to save time in later handling. A floor plan of the warehouse or a shelf chart of the storeroom should be available as a ready index to the location of any supply item.

It is customary to take an inventory of supplies each year before the annual supply order is prepared. It is even more desirable to maintain a continuous inventory of supplies. This may be done on a card file or on a set of wall charts. For each item provision should be made for showing the quantity received or withdrawn and the quantity on hand. As shipments are received and placed on the shelves, the quantity received can be noted and added to the quantity on hand. As supplies are withdrawn, the quantity withdrawn can be noted and subtracted from the quantity on hand. Such a record makes possible a quick check of the status of stock on hand so that advantage may be taken of any price break that happens to occur. The purchasing agent can readily determine whether stock is low enough to warrant issuing an order or whether such an order would simply glut the central supply. Such running inventory can be established for all the special supplies. For example, a form can be pasted to the drum of floor wax showing the total number of gallons contained, with space to record in order the quantity of each withdrawal.

Where there is a central warehouse for supplies, it is customary to make regular deliveries by truck to each building in the system. Items to be delivered are those requisitioned by employees in each building. Such requisitions are generally cleared through the building principal's office, and that office makes provision for distribution within the building of the items delivered. Where teachers and other employees are drawing supplies from a central storeroom within the building, student help may frequently be responsible for delivery of the supplies. The frequency of delivery or the hours the central storeroom is open are dependent upon the convenience of the employees and the amount of help that can be made available to staff such services. The more frequent the deliveries or the opportunities to call at the storeroom, the less need there is for storage space in each room.

If the work of the school is to be accomplished, every employee must have the equipment and tools he feels he needs in the accomplishment of his assignment. These must be available without too much inconvenience to the employee, and the provision of them should be carried out with his coöperation but without draining his time and energy from his major assignment and interests.

Suggested Reading

American School and University. This annual publication, which presents information about recent developments in school housing and equipment, is a most valuable reference.

Association for Childhood Education, Committee on Equipment and Supplies, *Recommended Equipment and Supplies for Nursery, Kindergarten, Primary, and Intermediate Schools.* An excellent resource. It suggests equipment distribution for certain age levels and for varying size groups according to physiological, psychological, and financial considerations. In each case, the company or firm that makes the article is listed.

A. G. Butzbach, "School Board Concern with School Equipment," *American School Board Journal* (November, 1948). This usable reference attempts to list six basic practices which may apply to nearly any situation.

D. B. Harmon, *The Coördinated Classroom.* Very technical but useful for those interested in learning the relationships between desks, seats, posture, vision, etc.

R. L. Hopper, "Who Selects Products Used by Schools?" *American School and University*, 1950. A useful reference which reveals the proportionate weight of decision allowed various school personnel in equipping the school.

School Executive (November, 1949). Another in the series on "Educational Planning" presented in this periodical. The treatment of equipment is quite good and should be of profit for anyone faced with the problem.

Supporting the Schools

CHAPTER 17

Almost everything a school does requires an expenditure of money. The provision and expenditure of funds thus become the focal point through which educational planning becomes action. Accurate records of school expenditures provide a complete review of the total school program, showing which activities are given greatest emphasis. Concern for the financing of education is, therefore, concern for the total educational program and for each specific part of it. Providing and managing funds for the school program constitute an activity that serves the whole school. Many of the separate processes related to the collection and disbursement of school funds are clerical in nature, but the total process is one of utmost significance.

The financing of the school program affects every employee, every pupil, and every taxpayer. Virtually every member of the local community has responsibility at some point in the process of supporting the school operation. A comprehension of general school finance and an understanding of the financial procedures peculiar to the particular school district will provide an effective basis for participation in the local educational enterprise. School finance and business procedures for local school districts include the making and management of the school budget, the provision and care of school funds, the accounting of school expenditures and the execution of authority for spending funds, and the management of school property.

The Point of Emphasis in School Finance

School districts do business on the basis of a fiscal year. This is the business year of the school, most commonly running from July 1st through June 30th. A financial plan for income and expenditures is made for each year. When the spending plan for the year has been approved and the income fixed through setting the tax rates, the school district budget represents educational policy in operation for the year. The school budget is the plan of allocating funds for a fixed period of time. Through following such a plan the achievement of the educational program accepted is possible within the income that can be made available during that period of time. Two questions present themselves: What education shall we buy? How much shall we spend?

Conditions When Primary Emphasis Is on How Much Is Spent

When primary emphasis is on the question of the amount to be spent, attention is directed to keeping expenditures in line with those of previous years and in relationship to other expenditures for local services financed through taxation. If this is done, the value of the educational outcomes is not given the serious consideration it deserves. Such emphasis generally results in smaller expenditures, but it may also result in a more wasteful expenditure for education. When the local community finds that its major concern is to keep the total school expenditure within limits, it is possible that the expenditures for some services will be so small that they are actually futile.

The family with a limit on expenditures finds that it costs too much to own an automobile just one degree this side of the scrap heap, even though the price for such an automobile may be within their limits. The service such an automobile gives is hardly worth buying. Such an expenditure becomes a wasteful expenditure. It is not economical to limit medical expenditures to getting only half cured. It is not economical nor practical to limit expenditures for clothing to purchasing only one shoe or only half a pair of trousers. The same principle holds for schools. When the stress is on the amount of money to be expended, school districts may try to stay within limits by patching up old, inefficient school

buildings, by employing teachers so ineffective that little education is actually purchased, by leaving out certain aspects of the school program with the result that many children leave school as soon as they may do so legally. *Even though a district may have a solvent financial status and a low tax rate, it is a poor business proposition if it fails to achieve effectively the very purpose for which it exists.*

Some practices tend to fix attention on the control of the amount of expenditures as a matter of primary importance. Maximum legal tax rates exist in most states. Such laws draw attention to how much can be spent legally. Inasmuch as local people have a real voice in the operation of the local school, these laws might seem to be set up to protect people from themselves. They may exist for the specific protection of the big property holder who can be out-voted, or the specific protection of the absentee property owner who has no vote locally. Such limits may also operate to impose greater prudence on administrators and boards of education in their use of public funds, since the funds are thus limited. However, there is always a local economic and social limit on taxes which operates more directly to emphasize prudence. When the funds for operation of local schools must be granted by some local municipal authority as a part of the total cost of operating all local governmental services, more emphasis is likely to be placed upon keeping the amount expended within limits than upon the outcomes being purchased. When a board of education sets up a business manager or comptroller for the district who deals directly through the board rather than as an assistant to the general superintendent of schools, it is likely that attention is more pointed toward controlling expenditures than toward achieving educational objectives.

A negative approach to educational administration is represented when the major budget question is "How much can we spend?" The controls established function to say "no" when the limit is reached, without too much attention to what happens before the limit is reached; the emphasis is then on present and past operation rather than on present and future possibilities. In such a system little justification is required for additional requests which correspond to past experience, but considerable justification is required for changes from the pattern. This may result in an inadequate allotment for an existing service for which the need has grown tremendously; without adequate funds the service is no longer effective and therefore wasteful. It may result in continuation of

an allotment for a service no longer necessary or for which the need has diminished tremendously. Such a continued expenditure is obviously wasteful, but it escapes examination because it is within the established limits. Under such controls there is always a tendency to use up balances toward the close of the budget period, since the money is available to be spent and since the subsequent allocation is likely to be dependent upon past spending experience. Such expenditures may not always be prudent. When money is tight, or when it is easy, the reductions or increases are not as likely to be made on a selective basis; they may simply represent a restriction or a freeing of the limits within which the various educational services may be operated.

Conditions When Primary Emphasis Is on What Shall Be Purchased

When primary emphasis is placed upon the question, "What shall we buy?" the total expenditures are likely to be larger but all of the expenditures are likely to be more effective. This question directs attention to the attainment of outcomes; thus budget considerations are related from the start to the purpose for which the school exists. In peoples' minds such an approach places school expenditures in the investment category instead of in the donation classification.

In considering the question, "What shall we buy?" it is necessary to look first at what can be purchased. Where there is real educational vision, the array of possibilities is always beyond the financial means of acquisition. This forces choice in terms of what is most needed and most wanted. With attention on outcomes there is more of a tendency to select services that can be financed adequately rather than to go ineffectively through the motions of doing a little of everything without accomplishing much of anything. This approach always brings up for review all of the existing program because it turns the financial question from "Are we staying within the limits?" to "Are we getting the most for our money?" This latter question becomes applicable at all times without regard to whatever limits may be established. It is the real test of economy.

Making the Budget

As noted above, the school, like other governmental agencies, operates on the basis of a fiscal year. This is fixed by law. Involved in the fiscal year are a tax year and a spending year. The legal rates set by state law, or the amount of money for schools voted by electors of the local district, represent the authorization for collecting local school taxes for the year. The school budget, legally adopted, represents authorization for spending school funds during the year. In all states laws govern the manner in which the local school tax rate is established. In most states budgets are required for schools either through laws specifically applicable to school districts or through making municipal budget laws applicable to school districts. It is desirable to relate the two procedures so that the budget, which represents a complete plan of operation, forms the basis for expenditures and also for the tax levy. This will keep emphasis on outcomes and on the educational program.

The manner in which the budget is adopted varies from state to state and may vary within a state according to the kind or size of school district. Depending on the law, the budget may be finally adopted by the board of education, by a local school election, by an annual meeting of the voters of the district, by an annual town meeting, by some municipal or county or state budget authority. It should be adopted prior to fixing the tax levy in order to relate income to needs. It should be adopted prior to the start of the fiscal year for which it is made.

The administrator should schedule time for budget preparation and adoption to meet all legal steps prior to the beginning of the fiscal year or the date for fixing the tax levy, whichever is earlier. The deadline date for budget approval then becomes either the beginning date of the fiscal year (July 1st in most cases) or the date when taxes are approved (that is, the first Monday of June in some Nebraska school districts or the first Monday in May in some New York school districts). Preliminary legal steps in budget adoption, in the reverse order from that in which they are taken, may include:

6. The meeting at which the budget is finally adopted,
5. Posting legal notices a specified period of time prior to the meeting,

4. One or more public hearings or a period of time during which the budget is available for inspection,
3. Posting legal notices a specified period of time prior to the budget hearings or budget inspection period,
2. Tentative approval of the budget proposal by the board of education prior to public hearings,
1. Preparation of the budget document for presentation to the board of education.

For most school districts this would mean that the budget proposal should be ready for presentation by the first of April or first of May.

Identifying Needs

Deriving the estimates and setting up the actual budget document is a technical job for the central administration. Everyone concerned with the operation of the local school should have a share in formulating estimates. The cumulative effect of suggestions, requests, and complaints of students, staff members, community groups, and individual citizens of the local community, state law and suggestions from the state department of education, and other recommendations provide the basis of estimates. Such participation may be spontaneous and casual. For example, if during a period of time a considerable number of separate individuals urged the provision of nursery school services permitted by state law, such urging might have some effect on the school budget. If pupils showed no interest in high-school debating even though the school provided a debate coach, such lack of interest might have some effect on the school budget. Comments criticizing a band without uniforms and comparing it unfavorably with uniformed bands of neighboring schools might affect the school budget. Distress over the number of automobile accidents involving teen-age youngsters, editorial criticism of the number of post-high-school youth loafing on street corners, teacher concern about the number of youngsters needing psychological services, the findings of the school nurse with respect to dental hygiene, the public reaction to unfavorable standardized achievement test results, and many other statements of fact or sentiment will influence the school budget.

When participation is organized through specific provision, there is more likelihood that all those interested in the schools will be effective in budget planning. All teachers participate through submitting annual

requisitions for supplies and equipment and through making recommendations pertinent to budget preparation. A representative advisory committee of staff or school patrons may participate through considering issues currently involved in budget preparation. Those individuals appearing to express opinions at the open hearing provided in the budget-making process take a definite part. Open hearings relative to budget planning can be held prior to setting up the budget proposal on which the formal hearings are to be held. In such hearings all staff members and other interested individuals can propose the education to be bought and indicate the priorities they prefer.

General participation in budget making is more likely to arise in the making and operation of long-range plans or in connection with specific surveys relative to current problems. The development and continuous revision of a long-range educational plan were described in Chapter 10, and the procedure for installing the program was treated in Chapter 11. As described, these procedures involved general participation. Illustrations of the manner in which long-range plans affect the budget include the following: Increased funds for additional personnel (supervisors or consultants or specialists) who will be required as science, music, art, or physical education are being introduced into the curriculum. Funds for such personnel will be required as remedial and corrective techniques, guidance procedures, and the use of visual instructional aids are being emphasized. As regular teachers become competent and willing to take charge of these programs and services, the need for specialists declines. The elimination of certain subjects and activities and the addition of other new services involve changes in personnel and equipment which affect the budget. The district may be in the process of improving the educational offering through the reorganization of attendance centers. The plan of reorganization will call for the elimination of specific school centers in certain years with corresponding changes in staff needs as well as in requirements for plant and equipment and transportation. These long-range plans affect each annual budget. The staff, pupils, and people of the community should have had a part in the development of the reorganization plan or the long-range educational plan. They should also have opportunity to react to the long-range plans each year with respect to their influence on the current budget proposals.

Members of the community will have participated in the development

of the long-range program of school housing, as described in Chapter 14. The way this plan affects the annual budget may also be illustrated. The bond issues voted create an obligation for principal and interest payments which varies from year to year. The plan of development will call for specific alterations to existing buildings, for the acquisition of new school sites, for the construction of new additions or new school buildings in a priority order. Each of these actions will require the provision and expenditure of funds according to plan. The school staff should also participate in developing a scheduled maintenance program for school buildings, service systems, and equipment, and in this way they will be participating in the school budget-making process.

Participation of local citizens and staff members in developing a personnel policy covering the items discussed in Chapters 12 and 13 represents another way in which these individuals and groups influence school budgets. The salary plan adopted to attract and retain with high morale desirable staff members will call for differing amounts of salary payments each year.

In Chapter 18 the evaluation of the local school by the community is discussed. This represents another procedure by which everyone involved in the local school operation may participate in budget making. Such evaluation provides the basis for changing the various long-range plans which the district has accepted and for modifying the operational procedures by which such plans are carried out. Such evaluation represents the start of budget making when the district is concerned with "Are we getting the most for our money?" Through such evaluation it becomes possible to develop recommendations with respect to all that is presently being done in operating the school. These recommendations will be reflected in budget changes. Illustrative of the questions raised in evaluation which will influence the budget are the following: What services shall be eliminated, expanded, initiated, or modified? What will be the influence exerted through following the next steps scheduled on the various long-range programs? What bearing have current suggestions and complaints upon the existing program and that planned for the ensuing year? What parts of the existing program shall continue relatively unchanged?

In relating needs to budget planning, consideration must also be given to changes in the number of individuals to be served by any particular department and to changes in the length of time for which the service is to be offered. This can be demonstrated by several illustrations. For example,

if half-day kindergartens are in order, it may be possible to get along on about half as many rooms and teachers as when whole-day kindergartens are maintained. The maintenance of whole-day kindergartens will also add suddenly the need for lunch provision for the kindergarteners and will make more urgent the provision of rest facilities. An increase in the number of first- or fifth-grade youngsters in a given attendance unit may imply only additional instructional supplies and classroom furniture. However, when the number reaches a critical point, a new classroom is required, with a new teacher. Or some arrangement for shifting the additional pupils to another attendance unit and possibly involving additional school transportation may be required. The amount of time during which the school building is to be open for community use has a direct bearing on the number of school custodians, the amount of fuel and electrical power, and the maintenance costs for the building and equipment.

In short, needs may be stated in terms of the quality and kinds of services to be offered, the number to be given each service, the time for which the service is to be given, the quality and the number of staff personnel required, and the building and equipment involved.

Translating Needs into Cost Figures

In order to fulfill these needs they must be translated into cost estimates so that the funds can be provided to pay for the services and materials. These cost estimates are classified in order to provide a form which assures that all pertinent items are considered and permits comparisons which utilize the benefit of past spending experience. The most generally used division consists of eight categories with appropriate sub-headings. These categories are: Administration or General Control, Instructional Service, Operation of Plant, Maintenance of Plant, Auxiliary Services, Fixed Charges, Debt Service, and Capital Outlay.¹ An illustration of a budget form that uses these eight headings is provided on pages 418-421. The needs identified should be arranged on work-sheets for each division of the budget.

¹ Note the criticism of the "traditional eight" expressed by Van Miller in "The Re-classification of School Expenditures for Accounting," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 108, (March, 1944), pp. 33-34.

On pages 418-421 there are reproduced Schedules B and C from the Annual School Budget report form, 1951-52, of the New York State Education Department, Bureau of Field Financial Services, Albany, New York.

SCHEDULE B EXPENDITURES

I GENERAL CONTROL	II LEDGER CODE	III BUDGET 1949-50	IV EXPENDITURES 1949-50	V BUDGET OR EXPENDITURES 1950-51	VI BUDGET 1951-52 (ANTICIPATED)
School elections	2:1	\$	\$	\$	\$
Board of Education:					
Clerk's salary	2:2				
Treasurer's salary	2:2				
Collector's salary (if on salary basis)	2:2				
Legal, auditing etc.	2:2				
Other expenses (supplies, travel etc.)	{ 2:3 2:6				
Attendance supervision—salaries	2:10				
Census enumeration—salaries	2:10				
Other expenses of attendance service (supplies, travel etc.)	2:11				
City and village superintendencies:					
Superintendent's salary	2:7				
Deputy and assistant superintendent's salaries	2:7				
Office assistants' salaries	2:7				
Other expenses of superintendent's office	2:8-9				
Total — General Control		\$	\$	\$	\$
INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICES REGULAR DAY SCHOOLS					
Supervision and administration:		\$	\$	\$	\$
Salaries of:					
Principals ¹	3:3				
Assistant principals and supervisors ²	3:1				
Clerical and other help	3:4				
Other expenses (include supplies, travel etc.)	{ 3:2 3:5-8				
Salaries of teachers: Grades K-6 or K-8 ...	3:9				
Salaries of teachers: Grades 7-12 or 9-12 ...	3:9				
Salaries of substitutes	3:9				
Textbooks	3:10				
Supplies used in instruction ³	3:11				
Payments to board of cooperative educational services and/or county vocational board	3:12				
Tuition to other districts	3:13				
Other expenses of instruction ⁴	3:14				
Total — Instructional Services for Regular Day Schools		\$	\$	\$	\$
INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICES SPECIAL SCHOOLS⁵					
Salaries of principals and supervisors	3:1, 3	\$	\$	\$	\$
Salaries of office assistants	3:4				
Salaries of teachers	3:9				
Textbooks	3:10				
Supplies used in instruction	3:11				
Other expenses of instruction	3:12-14				
Total — Instructional Services for Special Schools		\$	\$	\$	\$

¹ What per cent of full time does this salary indicate?² What per cent of full time does this salary indicate?³ Include: work books, physical education supplies, vocational education supplies, supplies for school tests etc.⁴ Include: commensurate, rental of visual and other instructional aids etc.⁵ Part-time or continuation, Americanization, summer, adult, evening vocational and other evening classes.

SCHEDULE B (continued)

I OPERATION OF PLANT	II LEDGER CODE	III BUDGET 1949-50	IV EXPENDITURES 1949-50	V BUDGET OR EXPENDITURES 1950-51	VI BUDGET 1951-52 (ANTICIPATED)
Wages of janitors.....	4:1	\$	\$	\$	\$
Fuel	4:2				
Water	4:3				
Light and power	4:4				
Janitors' supplies	4:5				
Services other than personal (telephone, cart- age, laundry, piano tuning).....	4:7				
Other expenses of Operation.....	4:11				
		\$	\$	\$	\$
Total — Operation of Plant					
MAINTENANCE OF PLANT					
Upkeep of grounds	5:1	\$	\$	\$	\$
Repairs of buildings.....	5:2				
Repairs and replacement of: Heating, lighting and plumbing equipment...	5:3				
Apparatus used in instruction.....	5:4				
Furniture	5:5				
Other equipment	5:6				
Other expenses of Maintenance (itemize).....	5:11				
		\$	\$	\$	\$
Total — Maintenance of Plant					
AUXILIARY AGENCIES					
Library service:		\$	\$	\$	\$
Salaries	9:1				
Repairs and replacements of books, periodi- cals etc.	9:2				
Other expenses for libraries (supplies).....	9:3				
Health service					
Medical inspection	9:4				
Nurse service	9:5				
Dental service	9:6				
Other expenses (supplies, travel etc.).....	9:7				
†Transportation of pupils { resident	9:8				
{ nonresident	9:8				
Cafeteria — salaries, milk, supplies etc.....	9:10				
Community lectures and social centers.....	9:11				
Recreation (summer playgrounds, interschool sports, uniforms etc.).....	9:12				
‡Payments to other schools and institutions...	9:14				
Other expenses of Auxiliary Agencies (itemize)	9:13				
		\$	\$	\$	\$
Total — Auxiliary Agencies					

† Include here: contract, garage and all operating expenses,
(Debt Service) and "full payment on bus" (Capital Outlay).

‡ Do not include tuition payments.

Exclude "transportation insurance" (Fixed Charges) "bus notes" and "interest on bus notes"

SCHEDULE B (concluded)

I FIXED CHARGES	II LEADER CODE	III BUDGET 1949-50	IV EXPENDITURES 1949-50	V BUDGET OR EXPENDITURES 1950-51	VI BUDGET 1951-52 (ANTICIPATED)
Pensions { State Teachers Retirement (0.9%) City or state system.....	6:1 6:1	\$	\$	\$	\$
Rent (buildings (exclude garages), grounds, non-instructional apparatus and equipment etc.)	6:2	\$	\$	\$	\$
Insurance on buildings and contents.....	6:3	\$	\$	\$	\$
Transportation Insurance	6:3	\$	\$	\$	\$
Other insurance (compensation, O.L.T., surety bonds, boiler etc.).....	6:3	\$	\$	\$	\$
Taxes or assessments.....	6:4	\$	\$	\$	\$
Membership—State School Boards Ass'n....	6:5	\$	\$	\$	\$
Other expenses of Fixed Charges (itemize).....		\$	\$	\$	\$
Total—Fixed Charges.....		\$	\$	\$	\$
TOTAL CURRENT EXPENDITURES.....		\$	\$	\$	\$
DEBT SERVICE					
Redemption of:		\$	\$	\$	\$
Bonds	7:1	\$	\$	\$	\$
Capital notes and/or bonds for buses.....	7:2	\$	\$	\$	\$
Short-term loans (omit loans received and paid back during the school year).....	7:3	\$	\$	\$	\$
Interest on:					
Bonds	7:4	\$	\$	\$	\$
Capital notes and/or bonds for buses.....	7:5	\$	\$	\$	\$
Short-term loans	7:6	\$	\$	\$	\$
Refunds	7:7	\$	\$	\$	\$
Other expenses of Debt Service.....	7:8	\$	\$	\$	\$
Total—Debt Service.....		\$	\$	\$	\$
CAPITAL OUTLAY Not paid from bond money or certificates of indebtedness					
Land-site	8:1	\$	\$	\$	\$
Improvement of grounds.....	8:2	\$	\$	\$	\$
Architect's and engineer's fees.....	8:3	\$	\$	\$	\$
New buildings and building equipment.....	8:4-8	\$	\$	\$	\$
Alteration of buildings.....	8:9	\$	\$	\$	\$
Heating, lighting, plumbing, electrical equipment	8:10	\$	\$	\$	\$
Furniture, instructional and other equipment...	8:11-13	\$	\$	\$	\$
Other expenses of capital outlay.....	8:14	\$	\$	\$	\$
New library books.....	8:15	\$	\$	\$	\$
Buses—payments from loan moneys.....	8:16	\$	\$	\$	\$
Buses—cash payments	8:17	\$	\$	\$	\$
Total—Capital Outlay.....		\$	\$	\$	\$
TOTAL EXPENDITURES FOR THE YEAR		\$	\$	\$	\$
Balance at close of year.....		\$	\$	\$	\$
* Money to be transferred to Repair Reserve Fund		\$	\$	\$	\$
** Money to be transferred to Capital Reserve Fund		\$	\$	\$	\$
Total expenditures, balance, and transfers		\$	\$	\$	\$

* As per Chapter 282 § 6-4, Laws of New York.
 ** As per Chapter 782, Article 74, Laws of New York State, 1948. Education Law.

SCHEDULE C
RECEIPTS[illegible]**DETERMINATION OF AMOUNT OF TAX TO BE LEVIED**

Total expenditures, balance and transfers.
(Total of Schedule A should be identical
with the total of Schedule B)

Less total estimated receipts other than tax
on property

**Amount to be raised by Tax.....

* For all teachers becoming members on or after July 1, 1948 deduct 5% of total salary. For all teachers who were members prior to July 1, 1948, deduct 4% of total salary.

† Applies to central districts only.

** These items should be the same.

*** Tax levy for indebtedness which was incurred prior to July 2, 1947, by former districts, now in central districts, should be for the : of principal and interest due up to and including a 3-mill tax on true valuation. All over 3 mills paid as special quota by State.

1 This total must equal the "Total expenditures, salary and transfers" listed at end of Schedule B at the bottom of page 1.

Budget work-sheets should show past budget estimates and corresponding expenditures for one or more preceding years, should indicate the legal and contractual obligations which are continuing, and should show the changes in needs differing from the preceding year or years for which past planning and spending experience is reported. Cost estimates can be computed for the contractual and scheduled obligations of the district since these are firm commitments. These commitments are generally indicated in dollar costs. A review of the unit cost represented in past spending experience provides a basis for computing the other estimates.

Contractual and Scheduled Obligations. Certain items may be rather readily computed for the budget. Teachers' salaries will represent the largest item in the local school budget. The quality and number of staff required are indicated in the statement of program needs. The salary schedule of the local school can be applied to present staff members in computing the budget item required for this purpose. This amount will be adjusted, in accordance with the salary schedule, by adding and subtracting estimates based on changes to be made in the teaching staff. Such salary obligations may be already under contract by the time the budget is in preparation, and the amounts of the contracts can be totaled to provide the budget estimate. This is especially true in states where the continuing contract law effects the renewal of contracts by the first of February or March.

Financial obligations arising from bonded indebtedness are also fixed and can be written into the budget estimate. Other contractual relations definitely fix amounts of money required in the budget proposal, and these amounts can be obtained from the contracts. Such contractual relations may include contracts for transportation, insurance policies involving fixed premiums, rentals for building and for equipment. Such firm commitments represent a dollar cost to which the district is already obligated and for which budget provision must be made.

Estimating Costs from Spending Experience. When needs are stated in terms of quantity and specified quality, a unit cost for the specified quality must be determined and multiplied by the number of units required to derive the budget estimate for each item. Unit costs may be derived from current prices, from the spending experience of the district, or from the spending experience of other districts. It is common practice to approach

the estimate for each item on the basis of the amount budgeted and expended for that item during the previous year. A few illustrations will help to explain this procedure. The budget-maker may consider whether the amount expended on school elections or substitute teachers the last year was adequate and whether the need for funds for such purposes will be greater or less during the year under consideration. The average number of tons of coal per year used will furnish a basis for estimating the need for coal for the coming year, and an estimate can be reached by multiplying the need by the unit cost for a ton of coal. If school supplies have been adequate in the past, a unit cost per pupil may be derived by dividing the expenditures for school supplies by the number of pupils using them. A new estimate for school supplies can then be derived by multiplying the per pupil cost by the number of pupils to be served.

Changes in program or method, which will require more or less school supplies, will affect the need and must be taken into account. The budget-maker must be alert to all changes expressed in the statement of needs on the work-sheets and reflect them in the development of cost estimates. He must also give consideration to price changes actually realized or trends in prices indicating changes that will affect the total cost. Some allowance must be made for cost changes.

Provision for Possible Error. Because of the fluctuation of prices and because of uncertainties with respect to program and personnel, it is difficult to develop an exactly accurate set of expenditure estimates. The budget should be as sound as possible, but reasonable allowance must be made for fluctuations over which the administrator has no control. This may be done either through the inclusion of a contingency item or through allowing for possible error in each budget item estimate.

The possibility of covering error by a contingency estimate tends to relax the effort made to estimate as accurately as possible. The size of any contingency item in the total budget may be taken as a rough index of the uncertainty and crudity in the budget-making process. An appropriation for contingency is really an appropriation for nothing. If it is not required for the various items already indicated, it may stand as money to be used imprudently at the end of the budget year. When emphasis is on how much is to be spent, this will be especially true since the general justification for the size of the contingency item will be that such an amount was actually required for contingency the preceding year. In spite of these problems,

the use of a contingency item as allowance for errors in estimation will generally result in a lower total budget than the use of an allowance for possible error in computing each budget item estimate.

The other procedure is to provide for error by computing or assigning a per cent of possible error for each item estimate and including as part of that item the amount required to cover the probable error. This money is then made available if needed, but it is specifically budgeted for something. If it is not required for such a purpose, it is less likely to be used imprudently and more likely to be preserved in the operating balance available as an income item for the following fiscal year.

Another provision for flexibility is the inclusion of an item for research, planning, and development. This should not be considered an item to be used to meet deficiencies in other budget allocations. It should be used for the purposes for which it is allocated, but the nature of those purposes adds flexibility to the school budget. Such an item is a regular part of the budget of most big industrial concerns. It is rightfully an item in the school budget if we do not wish to consider the school program as completely static.

Political Considerations. Occasionally an official pads the budget by overestimating needs on various items or by incorporating appropriations headed "miscellaneous" or "contingency." In some cases the padding is done with the knowledge that those who approve the budget are likely to reduce it, and the attempt is made to provide sufficient leeway in the padding so that when the reduction has been made the amount actually needed still remains. This is most likely to take place when the budget must be approved by some other municipal or county authority. It cannot be considered good general practice. If a school official justifies a padded budget and then always yields to reductions, how can those who adopt the budget know at what point the padding ends and the real need exists? It is wiser to budget as accurately as possible, including provision for computed probable error, and to build up continuing confidence in the integrity with which the budget has been prepared.

Another political decision is the amount of change in the total budget request that will be acceptable to the community. Radical changes in school costs from year to year are upsetting to the community economy, since individuals and local concerns also set up their own budgets in terms of their anticipation of what the taxes will be. There are some procedures by which costs can be leveled off from year to year. For example, this is

accomplished when a scheduled program of maintenance of school property is developed. The cost incurred in one year by a schoolhouse construction project is spread over the years by bonding the district or by acquiring the money in advance through a sinking fund to which annual payments are made. It is accomplished by scheduling the development of the program so that it is gradual. It is accomplished by buying insurance on the basis of five five-year policies with one coming due each year. Such leveling of costs is a reasonable procedure for a school district, just as it is for a private individual. However, since the school district can demand its income, the district should face up each year to the question of what education shall be purchased. The leveling procedure should not be used simply to keep within the controls evoked by emphasis on how much money is to be spent.

Balancing Expenditures with Income

In determining the amount of money to be requested, the difference between public business and private business should be noted. In private business the basic purpose is to make a profit for the proprietor or the stockholders. Hence the private business takes as much money as it can take in terms of the economics of its particular field, and it spends as little of it as it must. In public business the basic purpose is not to make a profit, but to render a service. Whatever money it avoids spending may actually impair the service it is rendering. If it takes more money than is actually needed for its expenditures, it may injure private enterprise by holding funds out of productive investment. If it takes money before it is needed, it has idle money on its hands taken from the producers of the community and thereby limiting their production. If it does not take money by the time it is needed, it must borrow at interest and thus increase the cost of governmental service without improving it. The school budget should seek to have funds available to meet all costs of the program as they arise without borrowing, and should seek only the funds required.

When the financial statement of need has been developed, the budget-maker must next develop an estimate of income according to source. Since local school authorities have most direct control over income from local taxes, income from all other sources will be computed first. In terms of state laws, enrollment and attendance figures, and records of past expenditures, he will be able to compute an estimate of state and federal aid for

which the district is eligible. This will include estimates of state and federal aid for vocational education, of state aid to the general school program, and of special state or federal aid for such things as school lunches, schoolhouse planning and construction, pupil transportation, education of handicapped children, supervisory services, and the like. In terms of past experience he may also compute an estimate of income from rents, fees, tuition, book rentals or sales, cafeteria receipts, receipts from student activities, and other sources of revenue. An examination of the financial records for the current year will provide a basis for estimating the balance on hand for the start of the new fiscal year.

All such sources of income for the budget year are either fixed beyond local control or are not of sufficient magnitude to have much influence on the budget. As indicated above, this leaves the local tax income as the factor to be adjusted in accordance with needs. The budget-maker can total his estimated income from all sources other than local taxes and subtract it from the total estimate of expenditures. The remainder represents the amount to be raised from local tax sources. If the amount is within the legal tax limits and is economically acceptable in the local community, the budget-making can be rather readily completed. If it is in excess of either limit, some reconciling must be done in terms of paring expenditure estimates.

In actual practice the balancing of income and expenditures is not quite as simple as indicated in the preceding statements. If the tax year coincided with the fiscal year, tax funds would become available as they were required under the plan of expenditures. In some states the date taxes are due may be ten months later than the start of the fiscal year for which they are levied. To some extent this lag in income may be relieved through payment of state-aid claims early in the fiscal year if state aid represents a substantial portion of local school income. Because of this lag in receipts it is necessary for the district to maintain an operating balance or to borrow funds in anticipation of tax receipts. When it is necessary to borrow funds, budget provision in the estimate of expenditures should be made for the interest charges to be incurred.

Other factors complicating the balancing of income and expenditures are those produced by the shifting base on which taxes are levied. For example, there may be changes in the value of property assessed in the district. In good times such changes will generally be in the direction of increasing the valuation and hence the amount of money to be raised by

a given tax rate. However, even in good times property may be purchased by religious or educational organizations or by government agencies which have tax exemption; thus the property is lost from the tax rolls. In some cases veterans are given a homestead tax exemption; so, as veterans acquire property a portion of its value is lost to the tax rolls. Changes in district boundary lines will influence the amount of property available for taxation. Where the state attempts to equalize assessment through use of a corrective multiplier, the change in the value of this multiplier may represent an actual change in property valuations on which taxes are extended. These various complications and the lag of the tax year behind the fiscal year encourage districts to levy as high a tax as law and public sentiment will allow at all times and again focus attention on what money is available for spending rather than on the outcomes to be purchased.

The budget document should contain a statement of the educational program to be accomplished. It should display an estimate of expenditures allocated in sufficient detail to show how the funds appropriated will make the proposed educational program possible. When allocations for specific items differ from the amount so allocated for the previous year, an explanation should be given. Increases in budget estimates should be accompanied by statements of justification for the increase. The document should include an estimate of receipts which will show that funds will be available to meet the expenditures proposed. Check lists have been suggested with respect to the budget form² and the budget-making procedure.³

Budget Management

When the budget has been approved, it represents a governor for school operation. It is the working plan for providing the funds required to make available the competent individuals, the building facilities, the materials, and the services which will achieve the educational objectives undertaken for the year. If the budget is well made, it will be necessary to follow it in order to achieve these objectives. The control of the budget may seem to be simply good business practice, but in this instance good business procedure is the only sound educational procedure.

² A check list of budget format and content is provided by C. A. DeYoung, *Budgeting in Public Schools*, p. 474.

³ A check list on budgetary procedures is provided by N. L. Engelhardt and Fred Engelhardt, *Survey Manual for the Business Administration in Public School Systems*, pp. 31-41.

The Running-Budget Check-Sheet

In using the budget as the plan of control it is necessary to relate each activity to it. Where operating balance is limited, some units of government establish a quota system for expenditures, allocating definite amounts quarterly or monthly as limits not to be exceeded. Where there is an appropriate operating balance, there is no need for such periodic limits, but the limits are rather those of the amounts appropriated for the various purposes listed as budget items. All orders for goods or services should be coded to correspond to the budget heading from which payment is to be made. The bills presented for payment should also be coded to accord with the budget. By means of such coding it is possible to maintain a monthly running-budget check-sheet. Such a sheet will show the amount appropriated for each budget item, the amount expended to date for each item, and the remaining appropriation to be spent. This device will help in the process of approving bills and determining whether funds will be available for payment of orders under consideration. The school district treasurer will also have on hand at any time a statement which indicates the current availability of funds to meet the appropriations originally allocated.

In some districts such a record is further refined by keeping an account of encumbrances and of funds receivable. An encumbrance is an obligation to pay funds when goods have been delivered or services have been rendered but for which the bill has not been received for actual payment. A running-budget check-sheet including such information might show for each budget item the original allocation, the amount expended to date, the amount remaining to be spent, the amount encumbered, and the unencumbered balance. The working of this plan may be illustrated by examples. For any given month a budget item for instructional salaries would show in order: the total budget allocation made for this purpose, the amount paid to date to regular and substitute teachers, the unexpended remainder of the appropriation, the amount obligated by the terms of teachers' contracts for the balance of the year (as the amount encumbered), and the remaining unencumbered balance—in this instance the amount actually available for substitute teachers. For instructional supplies the amounts shown would be the original allocation, the amount expended to date, the remainder, the total amount of orders for supplies not yet received, and the unencumbered balance which may be pledged by future orders.

Budget Transfers

When planning has not been done well or when some unforeseen circumstance throws the plan out of line, it is necessary to make budget transfers. Such transfers should be voted by the board of education and officially recorded as authorization of a change in the budget plan. In various states there are some laws or some state education department rulings concerning transfers. In general these rules permit transfers between budget items for current expenses (exclusive of capital outlay) but restrict or prohibit transfers between capital outlay and current expense items. Budget laws that permit transfers do not usually permit transfer of funds allocated to some purpose not originally included in the budget. This general ruling makes the inclusion of an item for research, planning, and development all the more desirable for the provision of flexibility of operation. When budget transfers are voted, the running-budget check-sheet should be changed to show the original allocation as amended.

When budget-making has been well done, it is difficult to suggest any emergency that could not be met through readjustment of the budget by transfers. For example, damage to property or personnel will generally be covered by insurance. In most cases the cost of going to court will be covered by liability insurance. Sudden price changes of critical dimensions are unlikely and would have been partially anticipated through an analysis of price trends at the time the budget was under construction. An emergency demand for services because of population influx should also have been partially contemplated in keeping check on the developmental plans of the community as indicated by chambers of commerce, realtors, contractors, and public utility companies. If the educational program is developed through understanding of the community and community-wide participation, no sudden program change would be expected for which budget consideration had not been given. However, in the event of an emergency that cannot be met by transfers within the existing school budget, there are various possibilities. If the district is dependent upon town or municipal government for its funds, the school officials should seek from the local municipal authority an additional allocation from unanticipated income, unencumbered funds, or transfer from some other department of municipal government. If the district is fiscally independent, it should borrow to meet the emergency, and repayment of the loan will be-

come an item in the subsequent budget. In rare instances a special election may be called to approve a special school levy to provide funds to meet the emergency.

Provision of School Funds and Their Care

An operational plan is of little value without available funds. The pattern of school support is constantly undergoing change. It is well to note the nature of such change before considering the various sources of school income.

Before the principle of school support through taxation was established generally, many schools were dependent upon tuition, donations and endowment, lotteries, and the like, for operating funds. The nature of such sources gave schools characteristics either of a public charity or of a business charging the recipient of education for services rendered. Educational historians report the establishment of school support through taxation starting early in our history with local tax support for elementary schools. They cite specifically the Kalamazoo case, in 1874, as establishing the legality of tax support for high schools. But the development of tax support for education is still under way. Through the years it has unfolded in the extension of services to older and younger age groups, of additional services to age groups already served, and with greater claims on more kinds of tax revenues collected beyond the local district boundaries. Some of the shifts in understanding and public sentiment comprising this development are to be noted.

Shifts in Attitudes toward School Support

One of the most important of these shifts in understanding and public sentiment is away from the school as a public charity or social service toward the notion that education is an economically sound investment. This attitude is supported and encouraged through studies⁴ comparing

⁴ See such reports as: Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Committee on Education, *Education—an Investment in People*; Harold F. Clark, *Education Steps Up Living Standards*; Raymond M. Hughes and William H. Lancelot, *Education, America's Magic*; American Association of School Administrators, "The Power of Education," in *Twenty-fifth Yearbook, Schools for a New World*, pp. 24-38; Clara M. Olson and Norman D. Fletcher, *Learn and Live*.

various American communities and various countries of the world, and by experimentation in marginal communities. The evidence from these studies is used to support such statements as the following:

It is becoming increasingly clear that the degree of education and technical competence determines the economic welfare of the various countries of the world.

A study of the facts will show that natural resources do not determine the income of a country. The facts will demonstrate that the degree of education and technical skill is the factor that does determine the level of income in any country.

There is increasing evidence that education can profoundly affect the level of living even in the low-income sections of this country.⁵

Accompanying the development of the concept of public education as a sound investment has come a broadened concept of who benefits from education. From tuition days or days when householders provided collectively for the education of their children, it was thought that almost the sole benefit was to those receiving education. Several factors in the shift from this opinion may be suggested. When the vote of each person affects the quality of personnel in government and that government affects more and more directly the lives of each of us, the civic competence of each voter, wherever he may reside, is important to all of us. When migratory workers move about the country, their economic productivity and their social behavior, dependent in great part on their education, make all who cross paths with them concerned with education of all citizens. When some states and communities supply more than their share in draft quotas because able-bodied individuals in other communities have so little education that they must be rejected for military service, we find an extension of the notion of who benefits from public education. This broadening concept has lessened the emphasis on the benefit tax as a means of providing support. (A benefit tax is little more than a service charge imposed upon those directly receiving the service.)

Another development of importance is the growing separation of responsibility for services from responsibility for fund raising. Where such relationship is still maintained at the local level, whenever a new or expanded service is urged by a local citizen or by a staff member, he is

⁵ American Association of School Administrators, "The Power of Education," in Twenty-fifth Yearbook, *Schools for a New World* (National Education Association, 1947), p. 24. Used by permission.

asked to tell where the money will come from to pay for it. When groups ask legislators to favor greater state responsibility for the provision of education, the proponents are asked to tell the legislators where to get the money. In general this means the earmarking of special taxes for special services. The effectiveness of the service may thus be dependent not upon how much it is needed but upon the economic fortune of the special tax earmarked for it. More and more in general government are we coming to look at services in terms of need for them, and to look at fund raising to meet the total cost of government as a specialized and distinct activity. (In other affairs a similar trend is to be noted; for example, Community Chest organizations are becoming common as special organizations for fund-raising purposes, but they leave to the various other organized community agencies the responsibility of rendering the services that require the expenditure of the funds raised.)

This separation of services from earmarked funds has tended to free the school gradually from its bondage to a limited share of local property taxes and has given it access through state and federal aid to a wider variety of taxes. In some instances it has been urged that additional forms of taxation should be made available to local governments so that responsibility for fund raising is still left attached to responsibility for rendering the various services. In many instances the additional forms are not especially useful to the local government because of their economic effect or because of the difficulty of administering them. A local sales tax, for example, tends to drive business to neighboring communities and thus may even reduce the value of property also being taxed for support of local government. Our society seems to be in the process of working out a system to allocate responsibility for fund raising to whatever level of government can most effectively administer the particular tax involved and to allocate the service responsibility to whatever level of government can most effectively render the services. The money collected is directed to the spending agency through a system of grants-in-aid.

The separation of fund-raising responsibility from service-rendering responsibility obtains only for support of commonly accepted activities. Service activities over and above those commonly accepted must be funded by earmarked aids or by additional local tax. In this way such experimentation is critically evaluated because of its visible connection with fund raising and is eventually developed soundly before becoming commonly accepted as a charge against general funds. By paying a

partnership share of the commonly accepted program from funds raised by the state or federal government, the local community is allowed more freedom for experimentation and development through the leeway thus allowed in its local taxing ability.

In the state-local partnership an effort is made to assure the financing of an acceptable educational program in all school systems regardless of their respective taxpaying abilities. In such an arrangement enough of the fund-raising responsibility for the regular program is left to the local community to assure the maintenance of local interest and participation in planning and controlling the educational system. However, leeway in the local ability must be left to permit initiative and variation over and above the commonly accepted educational program. If the local community is required to use all of its tax potential to buy its share in the commonly accepted program, there is little incentive left for local citizens other than to accept the program designated by the state.

At the state level there must be definition in broad terms of the commonly accepted program. Such a statement would include items such as number of days of school, ages of children who must be served and of those who may be served, acceptable professional competence of the staff, standards of health and safety to be observed, services and subjects to be generally provided. At the state level there should also be a determination of the appropriate share of effort which the local unit must make in order to qualify for participation in fund distribution from state sources. To assure the possibility of accomplishing the commonly accepted program without undue extravagance, a decision may also be reached at the state level relative to the size and pattern of local district organization which must be met to qualify for state aid.

Federal and State Aid

General Aid. Federal and state aid may be classified as general and special aid. General state aid to education initially followed the pattern of flat grants of so many dollars per pupil in average daily attendance or per number of children of certain ages on the census or per standardized classroom unit. Such distribution of aid simply put so many dollars of state funds behind the program of each child each year for use on the commonly accepted program. This was done without regard for the ability of the local unit to raise local funds or the degree to which

overhead costs might differentiate in the amount of money actually available for educational service. The basis of flat grants was also the easiest for distributing aid. Once in the pattern of distribution, the flat-grant basis has tended to remain as a procedure for distributing part of the state aid. It has also been proposed as a procedure for distributing a part of any general federal aid to education. If some flat-grant distribution is always included, so that some state aid goes to every district in the state, it is more likely that all will feel themselves to be a part of the state educational system.

The idea of equalizing educational opportunity for all children has long been recognized and has received unusual emphasis during the twentieth century.⁶ Inequalities in educational opportunity arise from at least two factors: tax-producing resources are not equally spread over the country, nor are the people to be served equally distributed over the country. To the extent to which support for education is dependent upon local property tax, the kind of educational opportunity that can be provided for each child is determined by the amount of assessed property per child. It is also affected by the amount of necessary overhead related to school operation.

The disparities in assessed valuation per child create inequalities of the first order, and differences in the sparsity of pupil population create inequalities in the overhead. In a recent study of Illinois⁷ it was shown that the wealthiest county at a uniform tax rate could raise fourteen times as much revenue per pupil as the poorest county. Disparities between the wealthiest school district and the poorest would be several times this ratio. These inequalities arise generally through chance. For example, when railroad tracks are laid through school districts, they add considerably to the assessed valuation. Or when highway right of way is purchased, property is removed from that assessed for taxation. In some cases the inequalities among districts are intentional. For instance, district organization or reorganization may be planned so as to keep a gravel pit or rich farm land out of a district with a heavy load of pupils to be served. Industrial plants may be purposely located just outside the urban district in which the children of most of the workers attend school and from which the workers commute. Costlier homes are built just outside the city and urban school district limits in order to avoid the heavier tax rates.

⁶ See Paul R. Mort and Walter C. Reusser, *Public School Finance*, pp. 98-100.

⁷ Francis G. Cornell, William P. McLure, Van Miller, and Raymond E. Wochner, *Financing Education in Efficient School Districts*, p. 24.

Two methods are followed in attempting to correct inequalities of this sort. One is the method of school district reorganization through which larger areas are brought under single administration so that there is less opportunity to fence valuable property off from responsibility for educating children. The second is the distribution of state funds by a formula to equalize educational opportunity. Such distribution is based on a minimum, or "foundation," amount per pupil or per classroom, agreed upon as the level at which the state will share in the partnership arrangement with local communities. In general, when local taxes at a uniform rate on the basis of equalized assessment of property and the flat grants fall short of providing the level of support agreed upon, the difference is made up through distribution of state funds. In some states the local district must actually levy the uniform rate in order to qualify for state aid. In others the rate is used simply as the basis for computing the amount of state aid to be distributed. In a few other states the relative ability of the local district is determined from a combination of economic indices such as total retail sales, postal receipts, motor vehicle registrations, and the like. Through this procedure a statistical basis for computing state aid is established. These economic indices correspond in a high degree to the assessed valuation of the respective districts and are not subject to the same local manipulation as is the assessment of property.

The other kind of inequality arises from differences in the degree of density or sparsity of population. Where people are sparsely settled, the overhead costs of education are increased through the necessity of operating small attendance units or of providing transportation to bring pupils together in attendance units of more efficient size. Either cost represents additional overhead beyond expenditures buying direct educational services to the child. Such districts must either spend more money per pupil or must reduce the quality or quantity of their educational offerings. Some attempts at correction have been made through development of special devices for improvement of the educational offerings of small schools: alternation of course offerings, use of supervised correspondence courses, and the like, as mentioned in Chapter 11. Other and more promising attempts have been made through modifications in the distribution of state aid. These increase aid for small school operation, share in transportation costs, or equalize statistically the effect of population sparsity. In many states special attention is given the small school through a guaranteed minimum payment per district or through a special

favorable weighting for small schools in computing the number of pupil units or of classroom units on which state aid shall be paid. Many states also make special payments to assist local districts in meeting the costs of pupil transportation. A more recent development is a sparsity correction⁸ in which a favorable statistical weighting proportionate to the inequality arising from degree of sparsity is introduced into the formula for computing state aid. Such correction leaves to the local district the decision as to how it may best meet the problem of additional overhead created because of its sparse population. It relieves the state of establishing additional regulations and administering them.

Special Aid. Special grants of aid are established for the stimulation of particular developments or for meeting emergencies. Several illustrations may be given. Transportation aid (included in the above discussion as a form of equalization aid contributing to improvement of general education) is sometimes considered a special form of aid created for the purpose of encouraging district reorganization and provision of transportation. In some states reorganized districts are favored in the state aid formula in order to encourage more efficient school organization. Most school building aid to date has been special aid granted either to encourage district organization, to get school building activity started, or to provide employment through public works (as in the days of PWA). Such aid has been provided for planning purposes or for building in reorganized school districts as encouragement for reorganization. Building aid has also been provided in limited amounts on a matching basis to the first-comers in order to generate a lot of planning. This generally results in more schoolhouse construction than would have resulted without such initial stimulation.

In further illustrating the nature of special aid it should be noted that the federal aid for schoolhouse construction during the thirties and early forties, although it resulted in aid to education, was actually designed as part of an economic recovery program. The educational programs provided under NYA and WPA should be considered public relief programs in part, even though they also resulted in some aid to education through payments to individuals rather than to schools. The funds under the Lanham Act, which helped provide additional facilities where war

⁸ See Van Miller and Raymond E. Wochner, "Correction for Sparsity in State Aid Formulas," *The American School Board Journal*, November, 1948, pp. 29-30, 77-78.

industries created an overwhelming influx of pupil population, also represented special aid to education though their basic purpose was to get more workers into war industries.

In this same connection the question may be raised as to whether or not federal aid to vocational education, which has stimulated the operation of vocational education programs through matching local funds, is also a form of subsidy to industry and agriculture. To what extent is school lunch aid, at least from the federal level, one element in the program of price support for the farmers? (Where states have contributed additional funds for school lunch program reimbursements, we may be more assured that it is a program of stimulating this development as a contribution to the health of youngsters.) The aid for the special education of exceptional children is another illustration of special aid in that financial assistance is provided for stimulating the development of educational programs for physically and mentally handicapped and for gifted children.

Whatever funds are distributed as special aid may be looked upon as money coming to the school either as incidental to or as an important part of the achievement of some goal other than public education, or as money coming to entice the local community to adopt new program offerings or new forms of organization deemed desirable by those who make decisions at the state level. Such aid may greatly influence decision at the local level, but it does not mandate such decision.

Revenue from Local Taxation

The general and special aids to be anticipated by the school district from state and federal sources can be computed. The major balance of the funds needed for the fiscal year of operation will be derived from local taxation or from borrowing. A school district is not like an individual who may expect a peak in earning capacity so that he may spend beyond income while he is reaching such a peak and then hope to live upon savings or retirement pensions after the peak has passed. The school district goes on indefinitely and should meet current expenses from current income. To fail to do so is to establish a situation in which more and more funds are drawn off each year to pay for interest on indebtedness. By this process the district finally reaches a hopeless financial situation in which schools are forced into drastic deterioration while the district is attempting to recover economic balance.

It is conceivable that a newly formed district, with no operating balance nor source of income acquired from preceding districts, might be forced to incur indebtedness to obtain funds for initial operation. The development of the educational program in such a district will have to be retarded while the district is catching up financially and establishing a reasonable operating balance. It has already been pointed out that school districts borrow to spread large costs, such as schoolhouse construction, over a period of years. It would be desirable to have not only those costs called "current expenses" met from current income; a fair share of the capital outlay costs should also be a part of "current expenses." The amount to be derived from local funds should then be sufficient to bring total income up to meet all current expenses, debt service, and capital outlay each year. If the tax leeway available does not permit this to be accomplished, some modification in the spending program will have to be made.

The Collection of Taxes. Technically the levy finally determined by the board or the school district or the municipal authority is not stated as a tax rate but as the total amount of funds needed. Such an amount must be within the legal tax rate available in the specific district; so it is always compared with an estimate of the funds that will be produced by the legal tax rate. Once fixed, it is certified to the proper collecting agent. In a great portion of our country such taxes are collected by the county treasurer or by a county tax collector. Elsewhere, as in New England, they are collected by the town tax collector, or, as in New York, by a special tax collector for the school district.

The tax collector has the report of assessments of real and personal property in his district certified to him by the appropriate assessors and boards of equalization. This record includes the assignment of such assessments to the various geographic areas of governmental subdivisions for which the particular tax collector is responsible. He computes the tax rate by dividing the amount of money to be produced by the total valuation of the property to be taxed and then makes out the tax bills for each property owner on the basis of the rate established. In general practice he is bonded for an amount equal to or greater than the maximum amount of tax funds he will have under his care at any given time. He turns in funds collected to the appropriate treasurers or depositories and makes his report at the date when unpaid taxes become delinquent.

The various state laws provide penalties when taxes become delinquent—generally consisting of interest to be paid, which increases the later the payment is made. They also provide procedures for tax sales whereby the property on which taxes have not been paid may be sold by a designated official as a means for collecting the amount of unpaid taxes. Such tax sales represent a lien against the property.

Custody of Tax Funds. The treasurer is the custodian of the funds. He should be an officer of the school district if the district is fiscally independent. When the district is fiscally dependent, the treasurer may be the town treasurer or the treasurer of some other subdivision of government. Such treasurer is usually bonded for an amount equal to or greater than the maximum amount of funds for which he will have responsibility at any one time. He receives the funds from the tax collector or by transfer from the depository where the tax collector has placed the funds. He also receives directly or through officers designated by law the grants-in-aid from the state and federal governments. He maintains a system of receipts for all money received, and his record of receipts he has issued must be reconcilable with his record of income. He also makes payments of money upon order of the local board of education and keeps a record of such payments so that his books may be balanced to account for all money received and expended. The actual orders on the treasurer for payment are generally drawn by the secretary or clerk of the board of education and will be discussed below as part of the business procedure.

Non-Revenue Income from Borrowing

School funds may be provided through borrowing. Funds borrowed do not represent school revenue, since an obligation equal to the amount borrowed is created concurrently with the act of borrowing. School district borrowing may take the form of issuing anticipation warrants, short-term notes or installment purchase contracts, and bonds. Many states set legal limits on the total amount of indebtedness a district may have at any given time. Such setting of legal limits on the extent to which districts may bond themselves is general practice. The board of education generally has authority to issue anticipation warrants or to borrow on short-term notes, either on the basis of a resolution passed by voters of the district authorizing the board to borrow such funds as are necessary for current operation,

or in the form of specific authorization by state law. Most school bonds can be issued only after a special election in which the proposal to issue bonds is approved.

Tax Anticipation Warrants. Tax anticipation warrants represent a first claim upon tax receipts of the district. They must be redeemable as tax payments are received, in the order in which they are issued. State laws generally fix the maximum rate of interest that may be paid on tax anticipation warrants. School districts may either issue them as payments for bills or may sell tax anticipation warrants to get funds with which to pay bills. Where any sizeable amount of money is involved and where the credit of the district is good, the latter procedure is used. A more favorable interest rate can thus be obtained, and the repayment procedure is simplified since there are fewer holders of anticipation warrants. During the depression of the thirties many school districts became so hard-pressed for funds that they made most of their payments in tax anticipation warrants. The recipients who could not afford to hold the warrants until payment with interest could be made were forced to sell them, usually at substantial discounts.

Short-Term Notes. Short-term notes do not represent a lien on taxes as they are collected. They may be issued to acquire funds for current operation and may be written for any period of less than a year or on demand. The installment-purchase contract used most frequently in the purchase of school buses actually represents another form of short-term note in which the district incurs an obligation for a short period of time to avoid a greater immediate demand than can be met with available funds. From statements made earlier in the chapter the reader will know that the writers believe districts should avoid borrowing of any sort through the maintenance of some sort of operating balance. When tax anticipation warrants or short-term notes are necessary, the school support program should be so arranged that they are never carried over from one fiscal year to the next. It was pointed out that mounting indebtedness for current operation creates a situation destructive to the operation of an effective educational program as increasing amounts of money are drawn off for interest payments.

Bonds. The issuance of school bonds is almost always for the purpose of extending or improving the physical property of the district. The issuance of bonds almost universally requires a specific vote of the citizens of the district. Such a vote approves a proposition stating the amount of the bonds, a limit on the interest rate, and the purposes for which the money is to be expended. Sometimes the vote is included in an election at which approval for purchasing a designated school site, altering or adding to specifically named existing buildings, or constructing a new school building is also determined. It has already been pointed out that most states set a limit on the extent to which a district may bond itself. This limit is usually stated as a percentage of the total assessed valuation of the district.

For bonding purposes the most commonly used type is an issuance of serial bonds. Under this plan the interest is paid annually or semiannually, and a designated amount of the principal is regularly retired. This regularizes the spreading of costs, which was discussed above. School bond issues are generally sold on the basis of bids received from finance companies. The most favorable bids are determined on the basis of the lowest interest rate required and/or the premium which the finance company is willing to pay for the privilege of buying the bonds. If the bonds also have an optional feature permitting them to be called in by the district before maturity, it may be possible in times of cheap money to refund the bond issue at a lower rate of interest by calling in all outstanding bonds and issuing new refunding bonds. In common practice the issuance of refunding bonds which do not exceed the amount of bonds outstanding can be accomplished by the board of education without a specific vote of the people. When bonds are outstanding it is common practice that the officer collecting taxes, once the debt obligation of the district has been certified to him, regularly adds to the levy extended an amount sufficient to meet the annual payments on bonds. Funds obtained through the sale of bonds must be used for the purposes for which the bonds were issued, and a separate account must be kept to show that the funds were so used.

Income from Miscellaneous Sources

There are numerous sources of miscellaneous school funds. Some of these are revenue funds and others are revolving funds. Revenue funds may be derived from such sources as rental of school property, tuition

payments, sale of school property, donations, receipts from student activities, student fees. Such receipts as those from rents, sale of property, tuition, and donations to the school district are generally shown as part of the total receipts of the district and handled by the treasurer in a manner similar to the handling of tax income and of grants-in-aid. Such funds as are received from the operation of a school cafeteria may be accounted internally as a revolving fund. The cafeteria books are kept by a special clerk or staff member or by the cafeteria manager. These books are subject to audit by the same procedure as are the books of the district treasurer. They are related to the books of the treasurer through payments from district funds to the cafeteria account to make up any deficit, or payments of any profit from a cafeteria fund to the district treasurer. School lunch programs operated by schools are not operated for profit, however; so the relationship, if any, is generally one of deficit payments by the district treasurer.

Student Activity Accounts. Income from student activities, such as athletic events, plays, music, concerts, parties, class dues, and the like, are sometimes handled as regular receipts of the district, with the accompanying implication that the district budget provide for meeting the expenses of all such activities. More generally the funds are handled as internal accounts by a school staff treasurer. He receives all such income and maintains books to show source and amount of funds received and the manner in which disbursements are made. Such payments are made upon order of the appropriate staff member or student officers in charge of each activity. Such school staff treasurer should be bonded for the amount of maximum funds on hand at any one time

A valuable training activity is available for students in planning and managing a budget for school activities. Receipts frequently are derived from the separate sources listed above. Many activities may be included in a well balanced plan. These may be financed through the sale of student activity tickets. Purchase of such tickets represents voluntary support of all activities for the right to participate or benefit in any of them. Although separate accounts may be kept for each individual activity, it is well to handle all of them through one centralized fund under one treasurer. Such centralization facilitates prudent control through a common bank account, a regular audit, and a bonded treasurer.

Accounting and Management of School Expenditures

The business office of the school will execute the authority for making school expenditures and will keep accounts as an important part of this process of execution. Accurate school accounts serve several purposes: (1) They represent a prudential control upon public funds. Such accounts, accurately audited periodically, give assurance that public servants handling the funds have done so honestly in accordance with the will of the people and the laws of the state. (2) They also serve as a protection to the custodian of the funds, for he has objective proof of his faithful performance whenever he may be challenged. (3) Such accounts provide the basis for reporting to the public on the condition of the schools and their needs. (4) Accurate accounts provide the basis for good management procedures, some of which were mentioned above in the discussion of budget management. They give information for cost analysis which may be used in planning future operation.

Spending School Funds

The board of education authorizes the obligating of district funds for goods and services. This is done within the legal procedures, the tax limitations, and the broad outlines of program established in the laws of the state. The adoption of the operating budget vests a generalized authorization in the professional administrator, as executive agent of the school district, to spend all the funds allocated for the fiscal year. This generalized authorization is subject to certain restrictions. The categories to which funds are allotted give some direction to the expenditures. These directions may be modified by board action transferring funds from one allocation to another. Other restrictions may be included in the rules and regulations of the board of education. A common illustration of this type of restriction is the requirement that expenditures for specified kinds of goods or services or expenditures in excess of a stated amount are to be obligated only on the basis of bids or only on the basis of specific action by the board of education. Beyond such limits it is assumed that the professional acting as executive officer for the board has the authority to issue necessary orders.

Continuing Contractual Obligations. Contractual obligations of the board represent specific obligations to pay funds regularly. These obligations are not usually reviewed for payment each month, but payment is made according to terms of the contract by the secretary and treasurer of the board. Such contractual obligations include teachers' contracts and the employment agreements with all other regular employees of the school district. The payments due under such contracts and agreements are regularly listed on a payroll sheet, which generally shows for each individual: the amount of money due for the pay period, the amount of federal withholding tax deduction, the amount of retirement system deduction, and other authorized deductions—as for hospitalization insurance—and the net amount due. Such a payroll sheet is the written authorization on which the secretary or clerk of the board proceeds to draw orders for payment on the treasurer. Other contractual obligations may include transportation service and rental of property. The contract itself represents the order for the services to be rendered.

Other services are rendered regularly without specific monthly order—such as electric light and power, gas, telephone, water. These utility bills are submitted monthly and should be inspected by a designated school official to ascertain that they have been properly computed in terms of the rate agreement between the company and the school and that the rate agreement is in line with the state and federal regulation of such utility rates. Contracts for insurance represent orders for another sort of service for which there is some regulation of premium rates.

Purchase Orders. Regularly, other services and goods are ordered on a written order form. It is good practice to issue such orders on a pre-numbered standard form so that a serial record of all orders is readily available from the final copy left in the order book. The top copy should be issued to the vendor or the individual who is to furnish the service. Sometimes a second and third copy are transmitted to the member of the school staff who will receive the order or will have direction over the services. One of these copies can be retained by the staff member as a record of his requisitions; the other can be used as a form for certifying that the goods as ordered have been received or that the services have been appropriately rendered. This certificate is frequently attached to the bill to indicate that payment is proper.

Bids. In most districts purchases involving substantial amounts or contractual services for sizeable jobs are ordered on the basis of bids. Companies are asked to submit bids on such items as supplying audio-visual projection equipment, office equipment, or school furniture, and for work in painting exterior woodwork, and repairing and replacing stage scenery and curtains. This procedure involves the submission to prospective vendors or contractors of requests for bids. Such request forms may contain a statement of the rules and regulations of the board of education which govern receiving and approving such bids. They should always contain a rather specific description of the extent and quality of services desired or of the specifications for the equipment or material to be ordered. The board awards the contract so as to secure adequate goods or services at the lowest cost possible from a bidder on whom reliance may be placed for delivery of goods specified or for rendering the services defined. When such bids are received, they are usually sealed; they are all opened at one time at a meeting of the board. Board action approving a specific bid forms the basis for ordering the materials, equipment, or services involved.

Payment of Bills. All payments to be made other than the regular periodic payments on personnel contracts and other contracts mentioned above are listed as bills to be submitted for approval at each regular business meeting of the board. In the budget management procedure reported above, the list of bills is coded to match the budget allocations so that it is easy to see whether or not the expenditures to be approved are in line with the original budget authorization. In inspecting bills for approval, evidence that the goods or services were rendered is available from a copy of the order, which may also be certified to show that goods have been received or services rendered as ordered. A check should be made to see that amounts are properly computed, and inspection should be made to determine whether any discount is available for prompt payment. When such inspection is completed, the bills can be arranged for listing in order corresponding to budget items.

This list of bills, with any modifications made before approval by the board, should be a part of the minutes of the board meeting and will represent the authorization for payment. The clerk or secretary of the board will proceed to draw orders on the treasurer to each person or company listed and for the amount approved. In some districts a detachable part of

the order for payment is a statement of the bill for which payment is being made, and it may include the words that the order represents payment in full for the account shown. In other instances the payee is requested to receipt the bill and return it or to return a receipt showing that the account is paid in full. In other districts the canceled order which serves as a check upon the bank depository of the treasurer's account is used as evidence that payment has been received.

Accounting Records

There are generally three sources of accounting records of school business transactions. The basic record is one generally kept by the clerk or secretary of the board of education. This record shows all income, classified by sources, and all expenditures, classified by purposes. This set of books is supported by all of the original documents of financial transactions, such as receipts issued, orders given, warrants or checks, bills from vendors, and any voucher jacket in which all such primary documents for each transaction may be kept. A second source of accounting records is those records kept by the several other officials such as the tax collector, the treasurer, the cafeteria manager, and others. Since most districts use banking services in depositing and disbursing funds, the bank statements form a third source of records.

Auditing Accounts

The process of audit by an independent agency represents protection to the citizens from any mismanagement of school funds. It also represents protection to the school business officials from any unjust accusation of mismanagement. In some states audits are required by law.

Auditors reconcile accounts from the three sources indicated above. In their examination of the basic records a specific transaction would be checked by inspecting to see whether or not the expenditure had been properly authorized, whether the goods or services had been properly ordered, whether they had been received or rendered, whether a correct and appropriate statement had been submitted, whether payment had been approved, whether payment had been made, and whether payment had been received.

The audit may be a complete audit or a spot audit. A complete audit

involves the careful examination of all sources of records. It includes examination of each voucher jacket and the enclosed order form, certification of delivery or performance, and canceled check or receipted bill. A spot audit involves a reconciliation of the basic records and an examination of voucher jackets and contents for a particular month selected at random or every tenth or twentieth voucher jacket. Auditors examine the minute books of the board of education to verify proper authorization of all contracts and of the payment for all bills. They examine the minute books to determine whether or not the budget has been properly approved and whether or not all transfers of budget allocations have been officially approved.

Property Management

School property represents value equivalent to funds. The proper custodianship of school property represents one other aspect of supporting the schools. Aside from the acquisition and maintenance of school property discussed in Chapters 14, 15, and 16, this business procedure involves accounting for the property of the district and the management of the insurance carried on that property.

Some inventory system should be maintained which lists and identifies all property of the district. An inventory system for school equipment was discussed in Chapter 16. Inventory records generally show the date of acquisition and the initial cost. This initial cost is of interest but is not of special value. The needed figure is the current cost of replacement. School districts develop periodic appraisal programs so that inventory lists are brought up to date in terms of replacement costs. This appraisal of current value is sometimes done by outside experts employed for the purpose. The replacement cost is important as a basis for knowing how much insurance to carry.

Where a school district has a large financial operation and owns many pieces of property scattered over a geographic area, it may be feasible for it to bear its own risks of loss or damage. With such conditions, this procedure is less costly than insurance premiums and no large loss is likely to be incurred at any one time to upset the financial status of the district. When the district bears its own risk, a special budget appropriation is established to provide for such emergencies and appears in the budget in place of the fixed charges for insurance premiums.

In most school districts, however, insurance policies on property are carried against loss by fire, by explosion, and by theft. A register of insurance policies carried by the district should be maintained.

To sum up this chapter: In supporting the schools emphasis should be placed on what education shall be purchased. The demand for public funds should produce enough to pay for the accepted program. Funds should be available when needed, but only those funds actually needed. The budget represents a plan for obtaining funds and for spending them to accomplish the educational program. Through the operation of the budget, educational planning results in action.

Suggested Reading

American Association of School Administrators, Twenty-fourth Yearbook, *School Boards in Action*. Pages 142-167 give an easily read presentation of good procedures and principles of financial practices in school systems.

American Association of School Administrators, Seventeenth Yearbook, *Schools in Small Communities*, pages 334-450. This reference indicates the general direction in which school support should be modified in order to improve education in small communities.

A. J. Burke, *Financing Public Schools in the United States*. This comprehensive and up-to-date volume is the best current material. It gives the facts, problems, principles and techniques involved in policy formation and financial practice.

Council of State Governments, *The Forty-eight State School Systems*. Directed primarily to a description of the patterns of state support of public education. Reasonably comprehensive.

Educational Conference Board of New York State, Committee on State Aid, *What Education Our Money Buys*. This thirty-two page monograph shows the direct relation between the quality and the cost of education. It is readily understandable by laymen. Its techniques are widely usable.

"Finance and Business Administration," *Review of Educational Research*, (April, 1947). The entire issue reviews the literature in this field for the three years since this periodical last covered it in 1944. Various established researchers in the area present papers on different aspects, including budgeting, accounting, cost analysis, reorganization of districts, and business administration.

Financing Education in Efficient School Districts, a Study of School Finance in Illinois. A good, usable reference covering such areas of financing as transportation, pupil distribution, reorganization of districts, and a "hypo-

thetical plan" which incorporates the better procedures. An abundance of easy to read graphs, cartoons, and other kinds of visually presented data makes the reference all the more useful for a wide variety of persons.

P. R. Mort, and W. C. Reusser, *Public School Finance*. One of the standard textbooks in the field. Probably more widely used in teacher-training institutions than any other source. Covers the entire field.

National Association of Public School Business Officials, *Classification of School Expenditures*. This bulletin states the principles involved in uniform school accounting for expenditure and revenue. It presents a plan for the classification of expenditures and costs. It also includes the text of U.S. Office of Education Circular 204 relating to the classification of expenditures and revenue.

National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, *Problems and Issues in Public School Finance*. A distinguished committee presents a collection of papers by individual members. Current issues are explored fully, and the best modern thinking is brought to bear on them. Although the volume lacks consistency, it contains much that is stimulating. It asks important questions.

National Education Association, Committee on Tax Education and School Finance, *Guides to the Development of State School Finance Programs* (twenty-four pages). The guiding principles that lead to the improvement of education through programs of state finance are stated and illustrated. *New Sources of Local Revenues for Public Schools* (twenty-three pages). This pamphlet presents a great deal of data in condensed form to argue for more adequate financing procedures. Present sources and anticipated sources for support are discussed along with current issues in each proposal. A list of references is included.

National Education Association, Research Division, "Fiscal Authority of City School Boards," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association* (April, 1950). City school boards are studied in two basic categories: those independent in fiscal matters and those dependent upon some non-board agency for authority in fiscal matters. Budgetary procedures, taxation, financial record-keeping, employment and purchasing—all these are presented in an overview with data gathered throughout the nation.

New York State Teachers' Association, *Fiscal Policy for Public Education in the State of New York*. A good reference to serve as a model for others interested in making a financial study.

V. M. Rogers, "Leadership Responsibility for School Costs: Community Cooperation in Financing Education," *Educational Leadership* (February, 1949). The author outlines four basic, procedurally oriented principles for persuading the community to expand its support of education through increased financing. He proposes the use of such community and school groups as "Advisory Councils," "Educational Planning Committees," and a "Citizens Committee on School Finance." A brief treatment but of use for a person beginning to explore the field.

United States Office of Education, *Financing Public Education*. Leaflet No. 78 reviews the steps that have led to developing state plans of finance now in existence and describes two approaches for equalizing costs of state "foundational" education programs. In Leaflet No. 79, sources, reasons, and procedures for federal fund allotment to education are discussed by the author. Since this latter discussion depends so much upon current congressional legislation, it is somewhat out of date.

Lorne H. Woollatt, *Cost-Quality Relationship on the Growing Edge*. This monograph provides part of the evidence that good education costs more than poor education. It is a careful examination of the results of educational programs in selected public school systems which operate at cost levels considerably beyond the average.

How to Get a Community to Evaluate Its Schools

CHAPTER 18

Public Schools are public business. They touch many homes daily when the children attend school. They touch taxpayers when tax bills are paid. They touch people who see the school children and the teachers going to and from school. People talk about schools. Pupils report at home their own versions of what happened at school. Parents determine whether school is good or bad in terms of these reports. People determine whether school is good or bad as they observe the conduct of pupils on the streets. Local people whose major relationship with the school is that of paying taxes may question its value. People watch the various public spectacles of the school—its athletic contests, musical and dramatic events, demonstrations and exhibits. Through myriad fragmentary impressions people continuously evaluate the schools. What is good or bad about the fragment under immediate observation tends to make the whole school seem good or bad. The cumulative effect of such fragmentary experiences fixes the individual's attitude toward the school and toward school support. The cumulative effect of the attitudes of individuals determines the degree of community indifference to or support for the schools.

The problem of getting a community to evaluate its schools involves (1) the setting of any evaluation made in relationship to the total program of the local school, (2) organizing the evaluation so that it is based upon facts systematically collected and analyzed rather than upon incidental subjective impressions, and (3) involving the community, or a group

representative of the community, in the process so that the results of evaluation are accepted by the community and do not become occasion for conflict between community groups or individuals. When the school tax and school operation become routine to the citizens, indifference and lack of information and understanding result. Only as some unusual change takes place in the school program or school tax rate does the community bestir itself with concern over its schools. The stirrings of individuals experiencing fragmentary influences of the school do not accumulate community-wide in any real sense. Any strong devotion or urgent criticism evoked by a particular incident is somewhat dissipated before it gets related to enough other support or criticism to make much difference.

As the field of public relations for schools was developing, much of the emphasis was initially put on building support for schools in the sense of building support for the existing program and for the currently employed staff. Publicity emanating from the schools reported accomplishments and recognitions. Criticisms were kept out of the news and were dependent for distribution upon unreliable and many times contrary-to-fact gossip channels. When the need became urgent, the publicity may have taken a defensive turn, but the total effect was one of making the American people feel that our schools were very good. (Almost every individual school could find some one aspect in which it was best or unique). Such propaganda created a mind-set which made difficult the gaining of increased financial support for and change in the educational program. During the forties commercial advertisers and radio, screen, and stage personalities had to come to the rescue of underpaid school teachers with an effective "pity the poor teacher" campaign. This campaign evoked support on the basis of sympathy and put the schools on a charity basis, with money given to meet the demands of those for whom the begging was done rather than as an investment in the maintenance and improvement of American democracy.

Evaluation that involves the total community in concern for and understanding of its own conduct of its own schools is the key to support and improvement of the schools. Sound support in the local community results only as people know what they are buying and why. Such understanding improves education beyond the increased financial support it provides. As attention is focused upon the relationship of each aspect of local school operation to the total program, each teacher and pupil gains a greater

sense of the importance of all he is doing, with a resultant gain in diligence and in satisfaction. With a community-wide understanding of the goals accepted, the out-of-school activities provided will more likely be in line with such goals. As general understanding of the school program exists, there will be more direct help in coöperation on field trips, on voluntary services to the school, on loaning items for exhibit, on receiving students for interview, in revising community expectations in the varsity teams and with respect to other spectator activities of the school. As was noted in the first chapter, where there is widespread community understanding of the local school and of education, schools are better and are better supported.

One of the early developments in the use of organized investigation was the school survey carried on by a staff of outside experts reporting to the local schools and the local communities. Such reports tended to relate various aspects of the school program to the whole. The school survey by visiting experts has had a play of several years. During this period of time we may have seen the day when some school systems had such surveys just to keep up with the schools of Jonesville. Let us now, in a flight of fancy, observe a few cities and their school surveys.

In System City, where Robert Ruel was chief administrator, a school survey was scheduled for each five-year period. It came as automatically as the annual audit of the financial accounts and the three-year intelligence testing program. Many copies were printed for free distribution locally, but those citizens who did acquire copies were mostly amazed by the forbidding sets of tables and by the strange language of the educators rather than by the sound condition of the schools in System City. The survey reports were used as control charts by the administrators. Surveys were conducted to see that everything was in order and that System City was in line with program and facilities and achievement (on the average) elsewhere. The survey experts selected for the job were the kind who could be depended upon to produce such an end product.

In Driversville, Superintendent Schalk used the survey by experts in place of effective personnel policy. He conducted surveys with the use of experts, not for the sake of the findings but for the stimulation provided to the staff. The trend of the survey was always in the direction of finding what was wrong, and staff members were generally active during the period of the survey. Through the years they had learned that it was safest to have some program of change under way while a survey was being

made. A program in flux is hard to measure, and the mere fact that it is in flux is usually, in educational circles, taken to mean that something desirable is happening to it. Some of the teachers, wise in ways of getting along, had developed good program-change schemes which could be reactivated with minor additions each time a survey was under way and then suspended until the next big push was on. When, on occasion, something wrong was found, Superintendent Schalk sometimes made changes in personnel, but he generally used the finding as a club for lining up the teacher in question.

Wrangle was a community of a different sort, however. There had been disagreement over the schools in Wrangle. Some of the newly rich felt that the schools were not getting pupils ready for college—judging from their experiences with their own children. Some of the old-timers wanted harsher discipline and said that the schools had been getting soft. These criticisms led to all kinds of rumors and questions about the teaching of subtraction, the use of phonics in reading, the amount of patriotism taught as measured by the quantity of history dispensed daily. Even the local but silent majority had begun to wonder which of the louder articulate voices were right or wrong. So an umpire had been called in to settle the issue. His staff had made a survey and a report which indicated that each was partially right. The argument continued, with each faction bolstered anew by the partial support of the expert and bothered not in the least by any implication of the inadequacy of their respective positions.

The people of Purplex City had several problems related to the local schools. Some people raised some tough questions. Many parents over the city wanted kindergarten experiences for all children like those organized by the parent-teacher association in one of the better elementary-school attendance units. Some children in a new development had no school within walking distance, and there was a real question of providing a school or satisfactory transportation. The development of war industries had brought in new workers upsetting the old ratio of various local racial and socio-economic groups. The new ratios had not settled into balance as yet. The old school program did not seem to fit the new community. The administrator of the Purplex City schools did not need an umpire—he needed answers to special problems. The survey in Purplex City was conducted to find those answers.

The high school at Honorsdale was one of that royal clan of accredited schools. They had joined the accrediting association because of the joining

tendency of all Americans and because of the prestige value of being on the list. The administrator had also felt that the association requirements would give him backing for demands for funds for additional teachers, activities, equipment, room arrangement, and the like. The accrediting association thought surveys were good, and Honorsdale followed along with an occasional survey which was lots of fun and which showed that its schools are as good as accredited schools must be.

The foregoing illustrations indicate some of the situations in which there have been calls for evaluation. Comprehensive programs of study and evaluation are undertaken to provide the basis for establishing initially the over-all educational plan for the local community or an over-all long-range building program. Re-study of such plans may be done piecemeal as occasion requires, or the community may reach the point of feeling that a thoroughgoing survey is needed to replace the findings and recommendations which provide the basis of current operation. Such thoroughgoing study may be required when it is felt that piecemeal revision has thrown the program out of balance. Comprehensive studies may be expected when any significant major changes are anticipated, such as school district reorganization, inauguration of a new building program, initiation of a new program of curriculum development, reorganization of attendance units and grade groupings.

But the evaluation and study of schools by the community need not wait on any of these big major decisions. The natural interest of parents of beginning pupils provides a base from which organized study of such a program can be undertaken. The interest of people in music, in citizenship training, in possibilities of adult education, in fitting pupils for local employment, in maintaining the prestige of the local school at their college alma mater, in character training, in sharing experiences with boys and girls—all these provide opportunities for study and evaluation involving interested citizens of the community. Students and teachers have many special concerns about school organization and the school program which may be directed into organized study and evaluation of aspects of the school program. If the local community evaluates its schools formally only through the comprehensive survey, much of the natural interest is directed into the bays and eddies of indirection and happenstance. If interests in specific parts of the program can be turned into organized study and evaluation, such channels will be established and available if and when a comprehensive evaluation is to be undertaken. The encouragement and

organization of such specific projects will relate each to the total school program and thereby convey sufficient information to create community demand for the occasional comprehensive study.

The Evaluation Process

Professional influence in making decisions and in executing them was discussed in Chapter 8. As citizens of the local community, the members of the professional staff participate in raising questions for study and appraisal. As the professionals of the local school system, they have a further obligation. They must provide the technical service and direction to all participating in the evaluation process. They have a responsibility for seeing that the procedure is well organized and for providing those technical tools of data collection and analysis that may be needed. The steps in the process may be listed as: first, the selection and definition of the area to be evaluated; second, consensus on the basic assumptions on which judgment is to be founded; third, the collection of pertinent data; fourth, the process of analysis by which conclusions are drawn from the data collected; fifth, the framing of recommendations and their transmittal; and sixth, securing action on the recommendations. The last two steps may not be commonly accepted as part of the evaluative process. However, if evaluation is to be more than a post-mortem examination, it must point to action. The action must be effected if the evaluation itself is to have value.

Defining the Area to Be Evaluated

Initially the local community must determine just what is to be evaluated. If it is the whole school program, what is meant by "the whole school program"? To have a realistic look at the whole school program a synthesis must be achieved of the thorough looks taken at the respective parts of the whole. What are those respective parts? If the evaluation is to be a consideration of how adequately the tool subjects are being taught, those subjects that are to be considered the tool subjects must be specifically labeled. If the health services of the school are to be evaluated, some definition of such services as distinguished from instruction and recreation and related fields must be determined. Is evaluation of the

business practices of the school to be one of accounting and purchasing, or will it include also the assignment of personnel and the management of school buildings and transportation and lunch rooms? What children are meant when evaluation is to be made of services to young children or to adolescents? What adults are meant when adult education is to be evaluated?

Establishing the Basis of Judgment

When an area has been identified and defined and has been limited so that evaluation can be accomplished with sharp focus in a reasonable period of time, consensus must be attained on the basis of judgment. The local community must develop a clear mental picture of what the good school or procedure or service is like as the scale against which the local situation is to be evaluated. Many surveys and investigations failed to produce usable findings and results because the investigators had established no basis of judgment. They did not know what they were looking for. They simply reported what they found without knowing whether it was good or bad. When such an investigation is undertaken and completed, those resisting change can use the findings to argue that what was found is good; and those who favor change can use the same findings to argue that what was found is bad. If a clear decision can be reached on the basic assumptions prior to the collection of data, the community will be able to use such data to arrive at judgments on the basis of a meeting of minds.

In establishing consensus on the basic assumptions leadership must be provided by the professionals. With respect to the good school or the bad health services or the good teaching of fundamentals they must determine: What have the specialists in the field said? What has been accepted by practice in other schools as reported in the literature or as investigated through observation or questionnaire? What does the local staff think is good? What does the local community think is good? In special fields the opinions of specialists may be located by reference to the publications of their official organizations. What has the American Library Association said about the characteristics and services of a good school library? What have the various national educational associations said about the good school program? Through a review of yearbooks, bulletins listing standards, reports of special commissions, and other

documentary material these recorded opinions may be synthesized so that common agreement of the experts as well as recognized disagreement can be set up for consideration by the local community. The results of research studies based upon empirical data should be differentiated from those reports of opinion based on chance or unorganized experiences. The professionals can report such agreements to the local community, or they can help the people of the community to undertake such documentary analysis.

The professionals can also help the local community review the reports of practice in the literature and select comparable school situations for current observation or investigation. They can examine for the local community existing evidence indicative of the position already held by the local community. They can review the policy statements of the board of education, of community committees, of officials of the schools, and seek out the agreements voiced pertaining to the area considered for evaluation. When were new services established locally? For what purposes were they established? As changes were made in those services, for what reasons were such alterations effected? The current vocal opinion may not represent the consistent basic assumptions acceptable in the community, and such an examination of documents and actions or records will help identify what assumptions have motivated the local staff and the local community. Against the informational background of what is generally held acceptable in the field of education, in comparable schools, and from the records of action and opinion of the local school, the agreement or disagreement of the teaching staff, the student body, and the community can be investigated. This may be done by questionnaire or interview. By use of appropriate sampling techniques¹ an accurate reflection of agreement or disagreement may be ascertained. The agreement or disagreement of all those concerned with the area to be evaluated should be determined. If there is great divergence of acceptance of basic assumptions, no evaluation should be undertaken until consensus can be achieved through group study and group discussion. Otherwise agreement on the evaluation will not result, since each will be applying such a different basis of judgment to the data collected.²

¹ For illustration of such sampling, see Illini Survey Associates, *A Look at Springfield Schools*, pp. 47-50.

² For an illustration of how different may be the bases of judgment, see Melvin C. Baker, "What is the Purpose of the Schools?" *Clearing House*, Vol. 23 (November, 1948), pp. 150-152.

Collecting Pertinent Data

The kind of data to be collected is dependent upon what the evaluators are trying to measure or discover. When agreement on the basis of judgment is not reached prior to the collection of data, no functional design is possible for the collection of data. Many times the evaluators or investigators start to find out as much as they can and accept whatever information is most readily available. Having gathered a wide variety of information they proceed to see what they can make of it. It may shape the questions they are able to raise. It may give them answers to something entirely different from that which they originally expected to appraise. ~~There~~ is real economy in time and effort as well as more likelihood of accomplishing purpose if, having defined the basis for judgment, the collection of data is designed to get the information needed and in the most usable form.

When the data to be collected have been determined, the professional staff can provide technical services in gathering them or in organizing the procedures by which they are to be assembled. Emphasis on evaluation should always be in the area of end results, for here it is possible to collect data that can be interpreted with respect to the activities of the school. The scale of information and opinions to be gathered for evaluation purposes may be thought of as being placed on a continuum starting with the materials and plan of instruction and extending to the end results in the out-of-school life of the community and nation. Illustrations of this continuum might include the one shown on page 460.

The most valid data, if the influence of the school program can be reasonably well identified, are the "life result" items at the right of the continuum. To the extent that such data are unavailable or not usable, the choice moves to the left to measurable school results—to observation and appraisal of processes and to consideration of organization and materials.

Such data involve both factual information and opinion. The professional staff will know what material is already available for examination in the form of existing school records on individual pupils, individual teachers, school attendance, student and staff health, class organization, time schedules, financial accounts. They will know how to assemble for evaluation samples of student and adult work. They will know the various measuring tools available in the collection of data, such as tests of mental

CONTINUUM					
AREA TO BE EVALUATED	FROM MATERIALS	TO METHOD	TO SCHOOL RESULTS	TO LIFE RESULTS	
Fundamental subjects	Course of study, textbooks, teacher qualifications, time allotment	Observe teaching	Achievement tests	Student publications	Public library circulation Sample of letters written in life situations, etc.
Health services	Course of study, staff qualifications, etc.	Staff organization Plan of procedure Pupil records	Standardized tests Physical fitness performance tests	Compliance with notices following dental and physical examinations	Draft rejections Employee absence because of illness Infant mortality Incidence of epidemics
Citizenship	Course of study, textbooks, teacher qualifications, time allotment	Bulletin boards Field trips Supplementary materials used	Achievement tests Sociograms	Activity organization, student participation in school control, local social welfare activity by students	Delinquency rate Percentage of voters voting Peer group structure
Aesthetics	Program offerings in expressive arts and in appreciation Library facilities	Classes and activity organization, library management	Pupil production, Hobby clubs, Fine arts clubs	Local patronage of school exhibits, concerts, programs	What movies, radio programs, books, newsstand materials do pupils and adults "consume"

ability, achievement tests, aptitude tests, personal adjustment inventories, social maturity scales, attitude tests. They will know the procedures of test construction so that they can develop needed instruments where no standardized tests are available. They should guide the community in the use of questionnaire and interview procedures. They may encourage the use of sociograms and projective techniques.

Interpreting the Data

What do the data collected mean with respect to the basic assumptions initially accepted? When standardized tests are used, the professional staff will need to help the local community determine whether or not the tests were standardized on a basis like or unlike that of the local community, and will need to give help in the understanding of norms and ranges and percentiles. When material collected lends itself to statistical treatment, the professionals will have to use the tests of significance and reliability. The information and opinions collected are not the answers to the questions of evaluation raised by the initial assumptions, but, rather, the material on which answers are based. Such information must be tabulated and arranged. The professional staff should help the community see what answers it has and how valid the answers are. When the analysis of data has produced conclusions, the evaluation proper has been completed.

Recommendations

The local community must still determine what it wants to do about the results of the evaluation. If the appraisal shows that the evaluated area is not good, is it as good as the community wants it to be or as the community can afford it to be? What does the community want to accomplish through its program that is not being accomplished as disclosed by the evaluation? What needs to be done to achieve such accomplishment? What changes in organization, in materials, in procedures, in support must be made? In the making of recommendations the professional should suggest the various means to be recommended, and the general citizenry should suggest the goals to be served.

The table on the facing page shows the scale of information and opinion that might be gathered for purposes of evaluating a public school system. See page 459.

Securing Action

If action is to be secured on the recommendations growing out of the evaluation, it is most likely achieved when those directly concerned with the area under consideration are involved in the evaluation. In effect such individuals are making recommendations to themselves—recommendations which they personally accept if they are willing to make them. The effect of participation in the evaluation is involvement developing personal commitment to action. Where action is dependent upon approval of individuals not involved, the group making recommendations is obliged to prepare the presentation of such recommendations in convincing form and communicate it to those whose acceptance is to be gained.

The following illustration of an evaluation procedure may be helpful. In Kingsway schools at marking period time as the teachers were working through the rush of test papers to be graded, a few of them questioned the value of such procedure. This turned to a question of the value of the current system of reporting to parents with respect to pupil progress. This concern led to further questioning in staff meetings, with the student council, with the parent-teacher association, and with the board of education. It was agreed to establish a group who would evaluate the current system of reporting pupil progress to parents. This area was clearly defined as covering the periodic reports submitted by the school to the homes. The committee on evaluation of the procedure consisted largely of teachers since the original interest had been expressed by them, but it also included representative students and parents.

The committee undertook first an exploration of the purposes of school reports to parents. They examined pamphlets, books, and magazine articles dealing with this subject as well as those reporting forms and procedures used elsewhere. They questioned students and parents as to what they thought such reports should achieve. They reached consensus on some basic assumptions with respect to the purposes of reports and then began to collect evidence from which they could appraise the degree to which the present system served or failed to serve the purposes. They determined the number of marks made out by each teacher and the amount of time consumed. In an effort to determine whether or not students were early categorized and pretty well kept within such categories throughout the year, they counted the number of times the letter mark in a given sub-

ject was changed for a given pupil during the period of the year. They got data upon what it meant to pupils to have an "A" or a "C" or a "D", and what students did differently as a result of having read their reports. They collected similar data from parents.

On the basis of these and other data collected, the committee began to examine the data to determine whether or not the present reporting procedure was serving adequately the purposes of school reports to the parents on student progress. They found general dissatisfaction with the present system: It brought little additional understanding or coöperation. An insignificant amount of motivation was actually operative once the students had reached the level at which any given teacher was willing to categorize them. Teachers were busy with bookkeeping during time that might be used in teaching pupils or in gaining more understanding of the pupil and his home background. Parents were signing report cards with little comment as long as there was no significant change in the level of the marks reported. Since there were few changes from the initial set of marks throughout the year, the committee had to conclude that there was not a high percentage of forceful communication in terms of the amount of time teachers expended averaging and computing and recording the marks.

The committee was able to conclude that their marking and reporting procedure was as good as that generally used. At least it was no worse than that of most schools. But in terms of the purposes conceived for school reporting to parents, they determined that the current system, having been weighed in the balance, was found wanting. As in all evaluation, the "weighing in the balance" is significant. It implies that the units of weight to place on one side of the balance—in the form of basic assumptions—have been determined. Such evaluation means weighing what is to be measured in counterbalance with predetermined values. It does not mean just holding it up to have a look at it. On the basis of the conclusions drawn, the people of Kingsway were able to formulate recommendations for changes in the reporting system. Some of these were restatements of what reporting procedures should accomplish. Others were statements of improvements to be achieved in the reporting system to bring it into balance in consideration of the basic assumptions about what such reports should accomplish. The committee reviewed unusual practices in other schools in their search for possible improvements in their own procedure, but they had guidance in seeking these leads from the clear statement of the purposes they wished to serve. They were able to design a procedure that

they were willing to recommend for tryout. By participation, representative teachers, pupils, and parents were already committed to experiment with the proposed forms and procedures. The expense in time and money required by the new procedures would not exceed that required by the current system. The committee got action on its recommendations.

The process of evaluation may be comprehensive and formal and time-consuming. It may be specific and informal. If it is good, it will always embody the aspects of selection and definition of area, agreement upon basic assumptions, having pertinent information and opinions available, and analyzing data as the basis for conclusions. If it is to produce desirable change, it will also include the making of recommendations and the securing of action on the recommendations.

Mechanisms by Which Evaluation Is Accomplished

Community evaluation of schools in whole or in part is accomplished through several mechanisms. One of the most important of these is the local board of education. The board is representative of the entire community and responsible to it. Board meetings are primary opportunities for the consideration of educational effectiveness. Through policy-making and the setting of the organizational framework in which the policies are to be implemented, the board establishes the official agreement on basic assumptions. Regular and special reports with respect to school operation provide readily accessible data to the board. Special committees of the board may be established to undertake more detailed investigation and study when occasion warrants it. The activities of the board in hearing reports should involve drawing conclusions from what is presented and using such conclusions as the basis for recommendations for action to be implemented through the professional staff employed by the school. The open meetings of the board of education provide an opportunity for any citizen or group of citizens to raise questions about procedures and to stimulate special evaluation of any phase of the program where the basis of sound judgment is not already available.

Another mechanism of evaluation is the issuance of reports by the professional staff of the school. When such reports are drawn for public presentation or for presentation to the board of education, they will embody identification of the basic assumptions, appropriate information

properly analyzed, and may include recommendations for further action. Annual reports represent evaluations by the staff presented for community information and acceptance. In the 1949-50 annual report of the superintendent of schools in Chicago, for example, a statement of the philosophy and aims of the Chicago schools is followed by a matching of the specific objectives for 1949-50 with the accomplishments of the year and a proposal of specific objectives for accomplishment during the 1950-51 school year.³ The printed report is one of conclusions and recommendations and includes supporting illustrative information and data. It is based upon a wide variety of information and opinion available through all of the regular channels of the school system and through special study on the part of the staff members.

• Within the institutional structure of the school many reports are provided. The report of any staff member on any phase of his work represents evaluation of an area of the school program by the person or persons most directly concerned with it. When there is more general interest in the area, provision can be made for wider participation in evaluation. When general interest or inclination is lacking, the report of the individual most concerned with the activity may be considered to represent evaluation accomplished for the community. Such professional staff reports may or may not represent thinking and judgment acceptable to the community. They should always illustrate to the community the order in which thinking should be accomplished when opinions about the schools are being formulated. Such reports should teach sound procedures for community use in evaluation and in accepting the evaluations by staff members or specialists.

Another available mechanism for achieving evaluation is the use of the outside expert. The specialist in evaluation or in school survey procedures may be called in under a number of different circumstances, as suggested earlier in this chapter. If such evaluation is to be effective, there must be community confidence in the agency called in, and the agency must work first to establish bench marks applicable to the local community as distinguished from the standards for that general good school which actually exists nowhere and particularly fits no real community. The prestige value of the expert has some bearing on local acceptability of evaluation reports. We are likely to think that the influence of expert prestige is

³ *Chicago Goes to School*, Annual Report of the General Superintendent, Chicago Public Schools, 1950.

undemocratic because of our belief that what is said should be accepted or rejected for its own worth rather than because of who said it. The visiting expert does bring to the community a specialization in evaluation procedures, a broader experience in evaluation under a variety of circumstances, and a working knowledge of available tools and instruments useful in collecting and treating data. Any report of the outside expert is like that of the professional staff and that of the board of education. To be of value it must still be accepted locally. The local board and local professional staff have some advantage in that respect in that they have established their place in the local community.

Two dangers are inherent in the practice of having evaluations accomplished by visiting experts. The first lies in the fact that the evaluator is not a regular member of the community, nor does he continue in the community to be concerned with the securing of action on any recommendations growing out of his conclusions. Hence he is more likely to be concerned with the quality of the evaluation report and the soundness of the techniques used than with the degree to which it is effective in producing increased educational effectiveness. An attractively presented, technically correct report becomes a major goal, as it is the basis on which employment in additional communities is most likely to be determined. This leads to the second danger. Since the evaluator works in many communities, he may routinize his techniques, in terms of the salability of his services, to the point of becoming static. Evaluations may come to fit the techniques and procedures he has available rather than the problems and objectives of the local situation.

Provision for Community Participation

Four somewhat related mechanisms are emerging which provide widespread community participation in school study and evaluation. They may be listed as the participatory survey, the work-study conference, the advisory council or councils, and the school study council.

The Participatory Survey. The participatory survey is one in which local staff and citizens assume primary responsibility and make use of outside help only for such guidance and technical assistance as the situation may require. The conclusions and recommendations of such a survey are those of the local community rather than those of the outsiders. Of late, such surveys have most frequently been concerned with school building pro-

grams because the school housing problem has been one of pressing urgency. Some surveys have been comprehensive in nature. Some have looked at particular aspects of the school services. In a participatory survey the board of education customarily appoints a central committee of representative local citizens. This committee is then authorized to set up sub-committees as needed and to draw upon the financial support of school funds allocated for purposes of the survey.⁴ The central committee should be large enough to be representative but not so large that it is unwieldy. A committee of five to twelve is suggested. Additional participation and representation can be provided through the various sub-committees formed for carrying out the work of the survey. Members, especially of the central committee, should be chosen because of what they are willing and able to do rather than because of what they represent. However, an effort should be made to establish on such a central committee a fair representation of the individuals and groups directly affected by the area under consideration. If there are conflicting views in the community, it would be well to have each represented in the committee structure at some appropriate point, along with sufficient balance of interested neutrals so that the differences can be approached and resolved through study techniques to the advantage of the schools.

The central committee should be given authority for designing the survey with whatever assistance is needed from the local professional staff or from appropriate outside consultants. The detailed planning may be shared by participants on the sub-committees, but the central committee will retain responsibility for coordination and timing of the work of all other committees. The central committee must receive, edit, synthesize, and release all of the reports of sub-groups. It may use an open-meeting technique to make the total procedure available to participants and others in the community who want to understand it and to help with it. The committee is appointed by the board of education (the official agency of school operation in the community) and is responsible for reporting directly to the board of education. However, the involving nature of participatory survey work will bring many people into positions of sufficient contact so that they will know what is under way and how it is proceeding. The committee in charge, as the number of participants involved becomes larger, will have an increasing task of continuously

⁴ See Van Miller, "Communities Survey Their Schools," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. VII (February, 1950), pp. 297-301.

releasing information obtained so that the work of all participants may be related and intelligent.

Reports of participatory surveys in other communities and guides to self-survey procedures⁵ will be helpful to the central committee. The local professional staff should bear responsibility for seeing that such illustrations and guides are used as sources for useful techniques rather than as blueprints for procedure; otherwise, the local community will find itself in the business of gathering a lot of available information before it knows what it needs to gather. The survey findings may be reported in composite form, but this is not so important in the local community. If participation is widespread, the community will know the story of the survey as it proceeds. As they become available, findings can be released through the newspapers and over local radio stations. Recommendations can be presented in brochures, in election campaign materials, in presentations to the board of education, or in other forms used as action is taken. It is the evaluation and the future action based upon it which are important, rather than the report.

At the present time most participatory surveys have been of a comprehensive nature related to the entire school situation⁶ or oriented to the planning of long-range building programs; thus program needs and the nature of the community itself have been included in the study. The importance of such work has been one source of motivation for citizen participation. The final formal report has likely also produced a sense of satisfaction on the part of those coöperating. There is some real stimulation arising from being one of the first communities to carry out a participatory survey and to have the report in such form that this can be proven to other communities. It may be that widespread calls for copies of local survey reports keep the local staff so busy and make them feel so important that their pride is satisfied with the extent of distribution attained, and they forget all about using survey findings as a guide to changes in the local system. The participatory survey movement will be just another educational fad unless the results of such participatory evaluation result in real improvement in local school operation. The stimulation of being first or of developing an outstanding report will be lacking when many communities are engaged in self-evaluation pro-

⁵ See *We Study Our Schools*, Connecticut State Department of Education.

⁶ See Lincoln, Nebraska, Board of Education, *Report of the Coöperative Study of the Lincoln Schools, 1945-46*.

cedures. As participation in school evaluation brings results in school improvement, it will be possible to spread community participation in survey activities where motivation is not dependent upon the prestige of uniqueness and comprehensive importance.

The Work-Study Conference. A second pattern of providing widespread community participation in school evaluation may be called the work-study conference. Such conferences may be planned to last a day or more, but they are accomplished in a short period of time. The conferences are organized by the local professional staff and may be open to all citizens of the community; however, a representative group of citizens are especially invited to assure adequate attendance and contact with the various groups and areas of the school community. The conference is organized into study and discussion groups with local individuals serving as leaders and recorders and with local professional staff members serving as resource people to the various groups. The theme of the conference, selected in advance, provides the area to be considered. An outside speaker may be brought in to keynote the conference, or local individuals may be used. The initiation of the conference involves either the presentation of reports from professional literature suggesting ideal educational programs or indicating educational goals or stating educational problems, or the use of local reports or the tabulation of a local problem census. Thus, very quickly at the outset the basic assumptions are suggested for acceptance. The local staff serving as resource people must have readily available a great deal of pertinent information about the local school situation, which can be furnished as the discussion groups may require it. At the end of the conference a general meeting is held in which the work of the separate groups is brought together to formulate the conclusions and recommendations of the conference. Such conferences are of more value in gaining widespread participation and in setting the stage for more formal and comprehensive evaluation than they are in terms of the evaluation accomplished.

Citizen Advisory Councils. A third mechanism providing for community participation in school evaluation is the use of citizen advisory councils. This movement is gaining momentum through the encouragement of the National Citizens' Commission for the Public Schools. The establishment of a citizens' committee on education to serve as advisory

to the board of education—or of citizens' committees serving as advisory to specific departments of the schools—provides another channel of relationship through which the local community may gain information about schools and effectively use the evaluation process in considering such information. In an investigation of sixty-two such committees in towns and cities of 1,000 to 600,000 population it was found that 71 per cent had been organized in 1946, 1947 and 1948,⁷ which is indicative of the recent spurt in the movement.

Advisory committees are generally appointed by the board of education. They should be widely representative of the geographic area and of the fields of interest concerned with the particular aspect of the school program for which they are established. Nominations for membership may be sought from the various organized groups of the community, thus providing a broad list of acceptable individuals from which the board of education may draw a committee that has balance and is representative.⁸ The committee may serve as a continuing community committee for survey work or evaluation in the area or areas for which it is established. It has an advantage over board of education study and evaluation in that it is not officially pressed for action and is in a better position to take an impersonal and objective view of the school procedure or outcome to be evaluated.

It should be recognized that such councils have no legal basis. When they are organized as advisory to some specific activity of the school, an attempt should be made to enlist the help of those with special interest and competence. When a general advisory council is established, its operation tends to duplicate that of the board of education. To the extent that this is so, the assumption is that the council is unnecessary, or that the board of education needs to be expanded to be representative, or that the board has become so professionalized that a new "board of education" is needed to give the people a voice in the action of the official board of education.

The School Study Council. The local school study council or school community council is another variant of the mechanisms providing for wider community participation in school evaluation. Such councils have taken a

⁷ Heinrich J. Hull, "Lay Advisory Committees to Boards of Education in the United States," doctoral dissertation, University of Southern California, 1949.

⁸ See H. M. Hamlin, *Advisory Councils and Committees for Agricultural Education*; or Hamlin, "Advisory Councils and Committees," *Agricultural Education in Community Schools*, pp. 111-135.

variety of forms. They are actually something of a continuous work-study conference. The council membership may be representative, but will more generally take the form of free and open participation. Successful experience with councils will be achieved when the stress is on clear-cut goals rather than on the machinery of organization.⁹ The council needs provision for some continuity of leadership and should make effective use of sub-committees to collect and analyze data pertinent to aspects of the school program under consideration.

The most flexible organization with the least stress on structure of any to come to the writers' attention grew out of a situation in which newcomers to a community were voicing a series of criticisms of the local school program. In one or two instances their charges were presented in formal speeches to local service clubs. Much of the criticism had been expressed in informal conversation on the streets and in the shops and at the private clubs. Expression of such criticism became a community pastime and sounded sincere and genuine to the hearers. In fact, it stirred in a variety of individuals old resentments, never adequately expressed, which had grown out of unsatisfactory or unpleasant experiences with the local schools in specific isolated situations. The growing criticism created general confusion among the inarticulate majority who had always believed their schools to be good without really knowing whether or not they were. The parent-teacher association with the approval of the board of education decided to sponsor an open meeting at which such charges could be expressed and answered. As a first step in desirable evaluation procedure they planned to use the initial meeting to list and define the areas under criticism for subsequent study and evaluation.

The first meeting was well attended, though the initiators of the critical attitude were not present. Among those present, however, were parents of children who lived in the houses just inside the boundary beyond which the school furnished transportation, parents of children who had not adjusted to the first year at college, property owners without children who found the school pupils noisy and disturbing as they passed by in going to and from school, parents of the "bad" children on the playgrounds who thought there was too much supervision, parents of timid or injury-susceptible children who thought there was not enough playground

⁹ See Howard Y. McClusky, "Twelve Years of Community Councils in Michigan," *The University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, Vol. 20 (May, 1949), pp. 113-115.

supervision, parents of the gifted who thought school was not hard enough, parents of the slow learners who thought the marking systems were unfair, and many others. At this first meeting a steering committee of five was elected from the floor.

There were no constitution, no dues, no minutes, no formal organization beyond the committee of five. Necessary expenses were met from board of education, parent-teacher association, and private sources. Members of the steering committee took turns by the month presiding at meetings of the school study council and at planning meetings of the steering committee. They had no term of office. As any one of them might become tired of serving or might move from the community, he was replaced at the next meeting by the election of a new member from the floor.

The areas of concern were designated at the first meeting, and any new areas might be added at subsequent meetings. Investigation was undertaken on areas in accordance with interest expressed. There were as many sub-groups established for special study as there were areas of concern represented. For each area of concern, the sub-group established consisted of those who represented the critical individuals, those who had information or desired to answer the charges, and one or more representative citizens without strong feeling who would be able to moderate the work of the sub-group. Sub-groups proceeded to investigate and evaluate the method of teaching subtraction in the elementary school, the effect of the entrance-age policy of the board of education, the recruitment of additional students for advanced mathematics classes, the appetizing and nutritional values of the school lunch menus, the thoroughness of the work in English, the supervision of playground activities, and countless other areas of school operation. They had the help of the local staff in developing basic assumptions, in assembling pertinent data, in analyzing it, and in drawing conclusions. They determined what recommendations were to be made and to whom they should be made. Such groups generally reported back to meetings of the whole council. Sometimes their work proved to be disappointing or insignificant; sometimes a group would fail to report. Nevertheless, such a school study council provided open authority for broad and free participation in school evaluation.

Suggested Reading

H. R. Bottrell, "Opportunities for Community Service," "Patterns of Organization in Community Service," "Techniques in Community Service," *Junior College Journal* (1947). These three articles by a professor of sociology are excellent for an understanding of basic problems and opportunities. The first article deals with need and opportunities, the second with patterns of communal organization, and the final one with techniques.

Connecticut State Department of Education, *We Study Our Schools*. This publication of the State Board of Education in Connecticut gives a program for the study of local schools by committees with substantial lay membership in addition to the professional members.

G. C. Finlay, "How Do You Know You Have a Good School?" *Illinois Education* (October, 1948). An explanation of why evaluation is important plus some elementary and initiatory principles upon which to base evaluation.

Harold C. Hand, *What People Think about Their Schools*. Describes a procedure for discovering the amount of community satisfaction-dissatisfaction with the schools. Includes samples of the inventories with directions for their use.

C. W. Harris, "The Appraisal of a School—Problems for Study," *Journal of Educational Research* (November, 1947). A discussion of basic problems confronting anyone entering into an evaluational study. The author deals first with an appraisal and then goes into a description of various kinds of appraisal. He closes with a discussion of measurement problems.

K. B. Henderson and J. E. Goerwitz, *How to Conduct the Follow-up Study*, Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 11. As the authors state, the aim of the bulletin is to become a "practical handbook" which recounts in a step-by-step manner how a local school can undertake the follow-up evaluation conceived by the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program. It describes instruments, their nature and use, and explains ways of summarizing findings.

Illini Survey Associates, *A Look at the Springfield Schools; a Report of the Survey of the Public Schools of Springfield, Missouri*. A large staff of experts gather and present data concerning what the public likes and dislikes about its schools. Along with that are analyses of curriculum offerings, school plant, ideological questions in the curriculum, and the careers of graduates of these schools. The entire program assumes a set of premises that go by the name of "Real-Life Education."

National Education Association, Educational Policies Commission, *Citizens and Educational Policies*. This small pamphlet tells why the interest of citizens is essential to public education. It contains recommendations for individual citizens, citizen groups, boards of education, superintendents of schools, teachers, and professional education organizations.

The School Executive, January 1952. This issue contains a variety of articles dealing with the relationships of citizens in schools. It describes how citizens are helping schools in many communities. The keynote of the issue is given in an editorial entitled "Schools Belong to the People."

Wilbur A. Yauch, *How Good Is Your School?* This book is designed to help parents understand what is going on in school. It describes good buildings and good educational practice. It is a useful but not unusually insightful volume.

PART THREE

The Professional Job of Educational Administration

The specialization of administrative leadership in American education cannot be traced from the available records. Many students begin with an examination of the earliest school superintendencies in the country. (Buffalo, New York, as a leader in this development, established the position of superintendent of schools in 1837.¹) Such writers trace the influences of developments in management and leadership in such fields as business, politics, and military affairs upon the practice of school administration by the superintendents.

Were there adequate records available, greater comprehension would be derived from considering the antecedents of the school superintendent. On the basis of what is known about the operation of our early schools, one can reason that there may well be two sides to the family tree of the school superintendency. One side stems from the school trustee or director who was responsible for employing the teacher, maintaining the building, buying the fuel and supplies, and handling school funds. He was a lay individual elected by his fellow citizens or appointed by an

¹ Harlan L. Haggan, *The Administration of American Public Schools*, pp. 34-38.

appropriate civil authority. He may have visited the school and made suggestions about the program and the teaching methods. He may have received the complaints and suggestions of fellow citizens, including the parents of pupils. As the school grew larger and more complex, it required more time than he could give to it without relinquishing whatever other vocation he may have followed. As he did devote full time to his school duties, he became a prototype of the school superintendent. His training was achieved through experience and through the exchange of experiences with neighboring school trustees or directors.

In many early schools the teacher planned the educational program, disciplined the students, instructed them, and evaluated their work. As the school grew larger, more than one teacher was required. The teacher with seniority or some other mark of prestige came to be designated the head teacher. Work as the head teacher or headmaster involved responsibility for the students, the other teachers, the instructional program, the teaching materials and textbooks. The work of educational administration for such a head teacher came to consume all of his working time so that he quit teaching in order to administer and supervise. As he did so, he became a prototype of the school superintendent.

Educational administration has continued to specialize. There are many more kinds of educational administrative positions now than that of school superintendent. Some of their functions are not readily distinguished from those of other personnel serving the community through its school system. The early administrators got their training on the job. Through sharing experiences they helped to train those who followed them. Early programs in the pre-service training of school administrators were based in large part upon a study of the current superintendents and the duties they performed. On the basis of such studies, programs were planned to help the individual ready himself to discharge similar duties.

The positions in educational administration developed as local communities and other agencies needed chore boys to take over the functions others had carried on a part-time basis. The duties of such positions accumulated without plan. At the present time there is wide national interest in carefully studying the school superintendent and all aspects of school administration. Studies under way include the examination of the

status and duties of present educational administrators, but these and other studies will go further. Consideration will be given to such things as the pertinence of principles established in related social sciences, interaction of school and community in the development of educational programs, the relationship of leadership to learning theory and to the democratic process.

In recent years sociologists, social psychologists, social welfare workers, and students of the administrative process have increased their interest in and investigation of the human group. Enough has been learned to enable scholars in this field to state many challenging hypotheses. Few of these hypotheses have been tested empirically. Until this testing has been done, the observer must choose among them on the basis of his own hunches. Some of the hunches of the authors about human groups in school systems as well as about employed leaders of these groups are included in Part Three. We make no apology for this procedure. But we do urge the reader to keep always in mind that the body of tested principles is indeed small. He should be intelligently skeptical. Yet this skepticism should not lead him to be also skeptical of the importance of both using and increasing man's understanding of the human group. It is possible that research here may lead to fundamental and far-reaching reconstruction of the administrative process.

This book has been concerned with the administration of American schools as a responsibility of the total citizenry. Emphasis has been given to the way in which our system of responsibility for public education provides a direct instrumentality through which each citizen can have a part in our total concern for all individuals. In the preceding parts of this book this responsibility and the way it is discharged have been discussed without emphasis on the specialized role of the educational administrator. There has been no implication that the educational administrator is unimportant nor that he is declining in importance as public responsibility is appropriately discharged. On the contrary, the positions of educational administration have been included in descriptions of school organization. The duties and work of the administrators have been discussed as a related portion of the whole account of public operation of American schools.

In this final section of the book the writers invite your consideration of the educational administrator and his distinctive role in American educa-

tion. In the process of professionalizing school administration it was natural that the administrators would come first to take over the management of the schools in testing and demonstrating their effectiveness. The current resurgence of widespread public interest in education has been noted. Attention is given to the problem of further transition as local communities take on their full responsibility for school administration coöperating with, rather than abdicating to, the professional staff. At the same time, the continuing need for status leaders in the execution of the responsibility is discussed. This, along with a description of the functions and positions of administrative service, will bring into focus the special work of the administrator in its relationship to the common responsibility for the schools.

And in this section a theory of school administration is formulated. This theory has grown out of the experience of both authors in positions of local school administration. It has grown out of professional reading and study. But this theory has not been validated empirically. Nor can it be considered full-blown as yet. We hope this is a developing theory. We invite local school administrators and local communities to test it in practice. We invite social scientists, psychologists, and others skilled in the human sciences to test and add to this theory within the regimen of their fields. We invite all to participate in its further development or to use whatever portion of it is helpful in their own theorizing and practice of the public administration of American schools.

Putting Democratic Principles of Administration into Practice

CHAPTER 19

On an examination paper a student once stated, "In a democracy there are two places where there should be no democracy—the army and the schools." In the same paper he proceeded to explain that he wanted to be sure democracy was well taught and that to be sure of this the school program must be definitely planned and carried through. We are all inclined to this error—to be so insistent on the teaching of democracy that we deny the pupils and the public the opportunity to learn it in the only way in which it will ever be learned: through practical experience in democratic action.

The acceptance of democratic theories of administration is widespread. It is difficult to find any treatment of administration in textbooks or magazine articles that does not point to democratic procedures. In professional courses for administrators and in their professional meetings the discussion is almost altogether within the framework of "democratic administration." In local school systems the administrators and the board members will frequently preface any explanation of local procedures with the statement, "We try to be democratic here." The most frequent criticism voiced of administration by teachers is the charge of having behaved undemocratically. At the verbal level we seemed to have arrived at an acceptance of democratic theories of administration. The problem is one of translating words into deeds.

This problem is more than one of reconverting school administrators. Democracy is a group process. A leader can be democratic only in a democratic group. The reconverted school administrator ready to inaugurate the full-scale practice of democracy will be in for a lot of

trouble unless there has been a corresponding reconversion of the teaching staff. Both will find trouble unless there has been some reconversion on the part of the community. The same staff presently criticizing the arbitrariness of the school administrator may run into trouble in staff meetings and committee work as a result of the installation of "democratic procedures." Staff members may find it difficult to accept responsibility for knowing as much about school organization and operation as they will need to know in order to participate in making sound decisions. Without such knowledge they will find it hard to sense any importance in many of the meetings of the staff or of staff committees. When they fail to sense such importance, they may be expected to accuse the reconverted administrator, who is insisting on democratic operation, of sloughing off on them the responsibilities and work for which he has been employed. He will find himself putting in more time to get participation than would be required for an arbitrary decision on his part. Under such circumstances committee work and the discussions in staff meetings are likely to be undertaken with a feeling of compulsion rather than of interested participation. For this reason the goal of participants in such meetings becomes one of getting them over with. Such work tends to be poorly done and done with less satisfaction and with greater expenditure of staff time than would be the case had the administrator made the decision in the first place.

It is obvious that we cannot move overnight from autocratic to democratic school operation no matter how widespread the acceptance of our articles of faith. To those who have achieved a considerable practice of democracy in school operation it also seems obvious that a school system never finally arrives at but is rather always working toward more democratic procedures. In the preparation and in-service training of teachers and administrators we have moved from a situation of little or no professional training to increasingly higher levels of training. Such a development moves us farther and farther away from the time when the artisan-teacher needs the direction and control of the master-teacher or administrator. Professional staff members have moved from artisan to master largely through specialization, so that each has become master of an educational specialty: an age level, a subject field, an auxiliary service. At such a point of development the administrative specialty becomes one of coördinating the work of specialists rather than of directing and controlling the work of the inadequately trained. In implementing the democratic theories of administration the coördination pattern must be shifted from one of control to one of communication. Specialists must

improve from mere expertness in their chosen specialties to sensitivity to the problems of the whole school and of education, so that the organization of the system becomes meaningful to them. Such sensitivity on the part of each staff member will make the coördinating work of the administrator more effective.

The Problem of Catching up on Developments in Educational Administration

Teachers and citizens must first catch up on the backlog of developments in school organization and operation. We have been through a period when it was assumed that, if the school were running smoothly, there would be little news other than favorable publicity. When problems and complaints came into the open, such publicity was thought to represent poor handling on the part of the administration. This pattern of avoiding open consideration of school problems fits the days of autocratic school administration. Inasmuch as we have been through such a period, staff members and local citizens have not had the chance to follow carefully developments in school organization and operation. For this reason there is a tremendous backlog of information to be acquired by them.

Many procedures discussed in preceding chapters and currently under way are part of the transition movement. Citizens are learning through citizens' committees on education, school study councils, participatory or coöperative or community self-surveys of educational systems. Teachers are learning through newly organized orientation courses on the American public schools, educational administration courses for classroom teachers, local school workshops, and regional work conferences. Administrators themselves are learning as a result of reorganizations of formal course work, group discussions, work conferences on the use of citizens committees, workshops for teachers, participatory surveys, and other ways of working with citizens and teachers so they will know about school organization and operation.

The Increase in Communication and Participation

The change from coördination through control and direction to coördination through communication and participation is also under way. Through the variety of ways of studying school organization and operation now being utilized by citizens and teachers, the first step in the

activation of effective communication is undertaken. The democratic way around the bottleneck of having everything finally go over one man's desk is the effective use of multidirectional channels of communication to establish system-wide relationships among a staff of able and trustworthy workers. These people should have freedom to develop and to fit procedures and materials to the problems at hand.

Under such a plan of operation the responsibility for coordination does not rest solely upon the chief administrator. Each individual staff member assumes, over and above that of his specialty, a responsibility for fitting his specialty into the total operation. The function of the administrator becomes more and more one of communicating information about the whole system and about significant parts of it to individual staff members. In fact, his job becomes one of putting the various parts of the system and the interested individuals and groups in the community into communication with each other. Such a plan of operation is more productive in that it does not restrict growth to the amount that can be checked and approved and put in place by one man. It expands development to the point where there will probably always be more good things going on than one individual can keep track of.

In opening up channels of communication and in developing greater interested participation, a wide variety of means are utilized. More attention is given to informal occasions where staff members and others talk freely and easily about things that are not immediately pressing and may not be of great consequence. This experience makes it possible for them to talk more freely and easily in situations where significant items are under consideration. Individuals are associated in informal groups, committees, discussion groups, and workshop groups on a variety of bases. Provision is made that those who are insecure will have opportunity in a favorable sociometric group to gain security by trying out their ideas in a friendly setting; otherwise, such individuals may never communicate. Provision is made for heterogeneous groups of various sizes in which the variety of ideas and approaches stimulates self-evaluation of presently-held ideas and the development of new ideas. In some cases provision is made for advocates of opposing points of view, along with an interested but neutral participant, to work through as a small group some resolution of differences. This avoids imposing such a disruptive and time-consuming chore on a full-scale staff or community meeting. Participation is encouraged on the basis of what is important to the participants and not imposed on the

basis of what seems urgent only to the administrator. Participation is geared both to tackling some tough and persisting problems which represent real challenge and to working out some developments in which the answer is fairly immediate so that the group experiences success.

Democratic Process Alone Is Not Enough

As democratic theories of educational administration are being implemented, it is important that we not insist on democratic procedures just because we think we must be democratic. Participation arising only from a sense of compulsion is participation from which individuals may be continuously expected to seek a rational escape. The extension of participation will occur only as participation is effective in making educational progress in the direction the participants understand and want. When things have turned out badly, when much time has been wasted, when people have worked on things in which they had little or no interest, there is little solace in the observation that "at least, we acted democratically." The attraction to democratic procedures must be one of involvement in something in which the participant has a personal stake. It must result from the stimulation of widening support for a key idea or of developing a new concept and plan out of many pertinent considerations suggested from a variety of sources. Those seeking to extend participation must be willing to start on areas of concern to the staff members, citizens, and pupils. They must help to break down difficult problems into studies that can be handled one by one with some success as each is accomplished. They must see the encouragement that grows from group work on problems from which satisfaction of ready accomplishment may be gained.

The Use of Advisory Councils

Every part of the process of school operation should be subjected to evaluation, even including the administrative process itself. In Chapter 18 the use of advisory councils was discussed. The use of such councils represents another means of implementing the theories of democratic educational administration. One of the difficult problems of communication has always been the opening up of channels through which even the most insecure individual may feel it possible to transmit an opinion about the

administration to the administration. Advisory councils provide such an opportunity. In Chapter 18 it was pointed out that such councils can be established on a community-wide basis for the study of all-school problems. They may also be established to advise on problems of any part of the school or on specific continuing functions. For example, an advisory council or steering committee might be established for revision of salary schedule, recodification of administrative code, review of staffing of central office, laying out school transportation routes, considering building needs. Councils might be established as advisory for school health, vocational agriculture, adult education, homemaking, music, and other continuing functions. Members for advisory councils can be drawn from the professional staff, the student body, the parent-teacher association, and from citizens in general.

The advisory council represents an important development in that it sets up a group whose primary function is not responsibility for action nor for policy making. In its study it is in a position to consider the process by which policies are made and action is taken. Policy-making groups and the executive agents may undertake self-appraisal of their activities, but they are personally involved. What they do already represents their best judgment of what they should do under the circumstances. They may be able to use hindsight as a basis for foresight when they are thinking about reconstruction of procedures or policy. An advisory committee can be even more objective as it considers the process of policy-making and action, for it can consider not only the other circumstances and facts pertaining to policy-making and action but can even consider objectively the performance of the action agents or the policy-makers themselves.

Advisory councils are to be avoided unless there is some advice needed and wanted and likely to be used. People do not want to waste time meeting with an advisory committee just for the sake of having an advisory committee—at least those whose service is worth much do not wish to do so. People are willing to give such service when it is utilized for the improvement of education. In the use of advisory committees it is therefore desirable for the school to raise questions on which it wishes guidance and to suggest a procedure by which appraisal may be made on the respective functions of the school. Such questions and evaluation procedures should not preclude the inclusion of questions, suggestions, and items for judgment which advisory committee members may wish to bring into consideration.

The Development of Administrative Codes

The transition from rules and regulations to administrative codes represents another facet of the implementation of democratic theories of educational administration. In the development of local sets of rules and regulations many of the decisions were reached only when a specific instance required a decision. In the interests of consistency, subsequent decisions followed those previously made which had to do with corresponding or similar situations. This represented an attempt to generalize from a single situation. Eventually such rules and regulations were drawn out of the minutes and formulated into a separate document. When they became a separate document, further amendments, additions, and deletions were made in an attempt to establish a consistent system of rules and regulations. Since such rules and regulations grew out of specific situations, they tended to grow into a set of "Thou shalt" and "Thou shalt not" statements, with an occasional statement on "Who shall." Such a code is likely to be directive and restrictive. It directs the growth of a program to the idea of a sound education as seen by the rule-makers. It tends to restrict growth to such an idea. If these initial rule-makers had the attributes of divine foresight so that they could see clearly beyond their times without the benefit of experience beyond their times, such a procedure might be good enough, although it would still be authoritarian.

Since we want to provide not only for the continuing growth of education but for the continuing growth of ideas about education as well, the pattern of change from rules and regulations to administrative codes has represented a shift from stating what we shall or shall not do to stating how we may decide what we shall or shall not do. The administrative code describes a system of operation. It may state qualifications of individuals for various positions. It establishes the relationships between the various positions within the system. It is not directive nor restrictive, but rather charts the ways by which new ideas may be presented and by which developments may be accomplished. Progress can be thwarted as badly by lack of organization as it can by directive and restrictive rules and regulations. From the newly developing administrative codes any pupil, citizen, or staff member should be able to determine how to proceed with any new notion or change he might like to propose.

Using Standards as Floors

Another step in the implementation of democratic theories of educational administration lies in the recognition that state requirements and the standards of accrediting agencies are not goals to be attained but represent floors to be maintained. With such recognition there is no boasting that the school meets state requirements or accreditation association standards—that is to be taken for granted. The mere meeting of such requirements does not represent local initiative but rather the dependency upon outside authority. The local school where there is participation and the interaction of independently thinking individuals will get up from the floor of requirements and standards and go some place on its own. The only restriction and confinement resulting from such requirements, when they are so considered, is confinement to the open heights above the foundation level and restriction from sinking below the foundational requirements.

In the implementation of the theories of administration we cannot successfully answer the questions: Are we democratic or not? Are we professional or not? Are we mature or not? The question must always be framed in terms of progress: Are we becoming more democratic? Are we becoming more professionally adequate? Are we maturing?

Suggested Reading

American Association of School Administrators, *Twenty-sixth Yearbook, The Expanding Role of Education*. Chapter 13 deals with "Schools and Social Pressures." Controversial issues in curriculum, propagandistic agencies, sources and types of pressures, are discussed with special reference to public education. None of the items is very carefully or thoroughly explored, but for initiatory thinking this may be of use.

Franklyn S. Haiman, *Group Leadership and Democratic Action*. Presents a definite system of procedures for the management of small groups. Easy to read. The problems described are not as easily solved as the book seems to indicate.

Wilbur A. Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration*. The author has a sound comprehension of certain important aspects of administering a school program that are often overlooked. He attempts to specify his point of view within this generally sound perception of the content and method of administration.

CHAPTER 20

The Need for Status Leaders

Throughout the preceding chapters of this book, the public administration of American schools has been presented as a responsibility of the whole citizenry. In this discussion the following points of view have been among those reflected:

1. In a democratic society there should be wide participation on the basis of personal involvement.
2. Leadership belongs to the group rather than to any one member of the group. It emerges as people express ideas and utilize skills forming and serving group purposes.
3. As groups (or cultures) mature, there is a specialization of function, distribution of labor, and coördination of action.
4. This involves improving and maintaining group organization, and it involves accomplishing the specific acts required to carry out the purposes for which the group exists.
5. Both in planning and in the evaluation that is part of it there is broad opportunity for general participation. In the execution of decisions there are specific opportunities for directed participation.

Why Status Leaders Are Necessary

In any society many tasks must be done if everyone is to benefit. Goods must be produced, transported, sold, and consumed if people are to live well. Roads, machines, buildings—in short, the whole complex structure of modern industrial technology—are required to do this. People must be healthy, safe, educated, governed, fed, housed, clothed, and protected. Making, carrying, and selling goods call for many different kinds of specialized workers and skilled technicians, such as engineers, maintenance men, mechanics. These activities also require the services of many with little or no technical skill. The needs of the people, as these are met by government, call for many other kinds of specialized services.

Everyone who works is, to some extent, a servant of all of the people. What he does will, in greater or less degree, affect the total amount of goods available for consumption or the total amount of services people will receive. It is not always easy for the man on the machine in a large factory to see the relation between what he does and the purposes of the company that employs him. It may be equally difficult for a teacher to see the relationship between what he does and the purposes of the whole school system. If every worker went his own way, without clear understanding either of the needs of everyone or of the purposes of his employers, some would work at cross-purposes with others. It would be almost impossible to get large tasks done. This is so obvious that stating it might seem unnecessary, and yet many sincere people are confused about the necessity or desirability of having any individuals direct and guide the work of others. Clarification is necessary.

The Role of Authority in Democracy

Much of the confusion regarding the function of the status leader stems from a misunderstanding of the role of authority in a democratic society. "Democracy" has been made to mean many things by many different people. The iron-fisted dictatorship of the communists in the Soviet Union calls itself a democracy. This use of the word is almost directly opposed to the use in the United States of America. Even within this country there are many organizations that claim to be interested in democratic values,

often with great sincerity, whose ideas differ from those possessed by other equally sincere organizations.

Within the field of educational administration there is general acceptance of the tenet that those who are to be affected by policy should share in the establishing of the policy. Democratic school administration, or democratic educational leadership, is judged largely by the degree to which it has been successful in getting many persons to have a part in deciding what ought to be done in a school system. This principle seems to underly many ideas about democracy in other areas of living. It is probably safe to say that a basic principle of American democracy is that those who might be affected by policy should have some voice in establishing the policy. We see the principle applied in the election of representatives to legislative assemblies. There the laws that govern all of us are made by the few whom we elect and can influence. It is applied in the election of members of school boards by the people of a local district. It is applied in the setting up of employee councils in schools and school systems. It is found everywhere that men are free to participate in deciding what is to happen to them.

To Enforce Group Decisions. But purposes and programs, however democratically they may have been established, are not enough. They must be put into operation if they are to have any real value. It is at the point of execution that authority is needed. In most instances agreement is arrived at through a process of compromise. Usually there are persons within the group who do not agree fully with the decision that has been made. Frequently, if they were free to do exactly as they pleased, their actions would not be in accord with the agreement reached. It would appear that not enough people have developed a keen enough sense of responsibility to act in accordance with aims of the entire group without vesting authority in one person who can compel action. Until everyone has learned that his own action must fit into policy established by the larger group, authority will be needed in order to control individual action. And it is doubtful that everyone will ever learn this.

To Attend to the Specifics. Other reasons for the existence of authority stem out of the nature of execution of plans. Statements of aims, of objectives, of policy tend to be broad and general. Plans for the reaching of objectives, for executing policy, must be detailed and specific. While it is

true that the contributions of many will improve the development of broad generalities, it is also true that the thinking of many leads to confusion about specifics. The reason for this is not hard to find. There are often several different good ways of executing any policy. For example, it may have been decided by democratic group action involving all interested parties, that it is best to do away with semiannual promotion in a school system. How is this to be done? What is involved in the doing? Someone must survey the enrollment by grades, the birth dates of children not in school, the sizes of rooms, the number of teachers at each grade level, the distribution of children within the district, the number and sizes of seating units, the supply of tests, and many other items before making a decision as to which procedure for eliminating semiannual promotions is to be used. Decisions must be made about when the program will be put into effect, whether it will involve all grades at one time or will involve them progressively, and other similar matters. Materials must be prepared for the information of teachers, children, parents, principals, and the general public. Methods for distributing the information must be developed. And there are a host of other problems of varying degrees of importance that must be solved. Experience to date indicates that plans for the execution of policy are developed and carried out best when one person has this responsibility and authority to get other persons to work with him.

To Bear Responsibility. A third set of reasons for the use of authority arises out of the continuous necessity for the group to check up and see that its policies have been executed to its satisfaction, and to fix responsibility if it is not satisfied. Evaluation of the outcomes of the efforts of the group takes place almost universally. It is formalized in some situations, it is almost accidental in others, but it is rarely absent. Every group which decides that something should be done, eventually tries to discover if something was done, how it was done, and whether or not it was done successfully. As it does this, it fixes responsibilities for failure or success. Through rewards and punishments of responsible persons it is able to get improvement. Here, again, it is doubtful that men will ever learn to carry through the difficult task of evaluation by looking to the group as the source of success or failure. It will continue to be important to know who had authority for getting action, and the degree of success he had as he used his authority, so that he may be rewarded or punished for the results of his efforts.

Execution of Policy as Distinct from Policy Making

In the above discussion of the role of authority in democracy it was pointed out that authority is needed to compel unwilling persons to follow policy established by the group; to develop and carry out plans for getting policy into action; and to fix responsibility for success or failure. Running through these ideas is the central theme that execution of policy is different from making policy. Some elaboration of this is indicated.

A policy is a broad general aim, purpose, or objective which an organization intends to reach. Usually it arises out of some kind of conflict, either real or anticipated, which must be resolved. A good policy is broad enough to include all the issues out of which it arises. This does not mean that it is always a compromise or that it is always inclusive of every point of view. While it may at times be either of these, it is frequently a definite, clear-cut, unequivocal statement that can be used as a criterion to tell which of two or more ways of acting should be followed. For example, a school system adopts the policy that all instructional materials used by students shall be provided without cost to the student. This is not a compromise. It does not state that some materials shall be free and that some shall be provided by students. It does not state that materials shall be provided free only to students who cannot afford to buy them. It is a clear statement that *all* instructional materials shall be provided to *all* students without cost to them. It means the same to everyone and is a criterion by which the future action of the school system can be judged.

How is this policy to be put into effect? The customary procedure is to request the superintendent of schools, a status leader, to execute the policy. In order to do this he must get other people to work toward this end. Requisitions for the purchase of materials and supplies must be made available to each teacher. There must be channels through which these requisitions pass to be approved for purchasing. Purchases must be made. Supplies must be delivered. Funds must be accounted for. Teachers must be trained to use the procedure and to anticipate their needs sufficiently in advance to insure delivery when things are needed. But this is not always possible; so some provision must be made for the immediate purchase of supplies and for the prudent control of the funds available for this purpose. In executing the policy the status leader will find it necessary to have principals do some things, teachers do others, bookkeepers and purchasing agents do still others, and so on. He will be involved with

secretaries, storeroom clerks, deliverymen, sellers, and a host of people. Unless he has authority, he may not be able to get all of them to help put the policy of free materials for pupils into effect. As he executes policy, he carries on many specific acts, each one of which is necessary if the general policy is to become effective. A major difference between the development of policy and the execution of it lies in the difference between general principles and specific acts.

Status leaders, then, are needed to effect the execution of the agreements reached by the groups they serve. They are needed to maintain and improve the organization of each group.

Characteristics of a Status Leader

The task of the leader of a group may be as simple as that of making sure that the crew of an outrigger canoe can operate efficiently. It may be as complicated as being the President of the United States. Or it may be anywhere between these two extremes. The man in charge of the canoe might have risen to leadership because he had great skill in operating one of the vessels. Primitive societies often choose people to take charge of others because they are skilled in the specific task to be done. The head of the hunters or of the fishermen or of the war party is frequently a great hunter or warrior or fisherman. But even in these relatively simple cultures, some leaders are chosen because they have great skill in getting people to work together. They have become leaders because the group found that it accomplished more under their direction. This experience encouraged the group to continue to have leaders because it learned that more was accomplished with organization and direction than without it. Often the good leader was also a good fighter or hunter and, in reflecting upon why he was chosen, it is likely that his prowess as a fighter or hunter was confused with his ability to get people to work together. In other activities that were complicated and required some length of time for accomplishment, like building a large lodge for religious rites, skill in leadership was more frequently the reason for selecting than skill in building. Of course, no one would be selected to direct building who did not know how to build.

The President of the United States is chosen for a vast variety of reasons. For example, some people vote for him because they are members of the

same political party and always vote for its candidate. Some vote for him because they like the platform of the party; some because they like his stand on an issue important to them; some because they do not like the candidate of the other party; some because they like his voice on the radio; and the rest for any of a very long list of other reasons. A candidate for the presidency may be chosen by the party because of the number of electoral votes allotted to the state in which he lives, because of his ability to get support from men with money who will contribute toward the cost of the campaign, because of his popular appeal or support, because of his stand on issues, or for a variety of other reasons. It would be hard indeed to say that any president had been chosen by either the party or the people solely because he seemed to be the most capable of doing the work of president, or because he would be most capable in getting people to work together. Politics have always been far too complicated for anyone to say that a single reason, or even a small number of reasons, were the only ones that counted. On the other hand, most of the men who have been candidates of the major parties, whether elected or not, have had capability of doing the work and of getting people to work together.

In between the high position of the presidency of the United States and the low position of captain of an outrigger canoe are thousands of others. In each of these is a leader who has been selected, for a variety of reasons, to direct or guide the work of others. Some of these are chosen by the people whom they lead. Others inherit the position of leadership. Still others are placed over people who have had little direct voice in selecting them. This third group is common in industry and in an industrialized society. Managers, superintendents, supervisors, foremen, and the like are employed in business to direct others so that more goods will be produced or transported or sold. They are important members of society, for as they succeed, the whole people have more to consume and a better standard of living.

Leaders are also employed by governmental bodies. In a local community of any size there are boards of health, of highways, of public welfare, and of education with employees who are under the leadership of technically trained persons. These leaders are responsible for getting work done. Both the states and the federal government have many employees who direct the work of others. Many of them are selected through civil service procedures designed to get competent people.

In industry as well as in government employers spend much time and

effort in getting well qualified people to fill positions. Occasionally, but not often, the people whose activities will be directed by the new employee share in selecting him. Even when this is done, the one finally chosen is placed in a position where he is responsible to others than those whose work he will direct for getting work done. Whether or not he remains in his job is usually determined by his success, as measured by those to whom he is responsible. It is rather uncommon for the group in his charge to have much to say directly about his continuing as a leader.

Leaders of this kind are called *status leaders*. A status leader usually shows most of the following eight characteristics:

1. He is employed by an individual, a board, or a company.
2. He is responsible to his employer for getting defined work done.
3. This work is done by other persons responsible to him.
4. He is usually chosen by an employer who places him over other workers.
5. His continued employment rests upon the judgment of the employer.
6. His authority comes from his employer.
7. His authority, selection, and continuance are wholly or in major part beyond the control of the group responsible to him.
8. He has a large measure of authority in selecting those who work for him, in determining how their work shall be done, and in determining whether or not they shall remain at work.

Kinds of Professional Status Leaders in a School District

In Chapter 2 the school system was presented as it arose from and interacted with the life of the community. Its contribution to the enrichment of the lives of children and adults, parents and nonparents, taxpayers and citizens, was depicted. But such a system of education does not develop by accident, nor does it continue to improve by chance. Skilled professional performance must be coupled with intense lay purpose before

any school system can become excellent. And this coupling involves the merger of several processes.

In any school system there are four main groups of employees. First are the doers. They are the teachers, truck drivers, custodians, social workers, purchasing agents, and the like. Their work requires skill in varying degrees. They work directly with children, adults, or things. The second group is composed of the recorders of what is done. They are stenographers, bookkeepers, teachers, social workers, and others. They keep the records of business transactions, educational programs, student growth, and group action. The third group is made up of those who seek to improve the ways in which others do things. They are the supervisors and consultants whose services are available to the doers and recorders as they seek to improve their skill. The fourth group comprises the administrators. They bring the skills and abilities of the other three groups to bear directly on the operation and improvement of the educational program. They are head custodians, principals, assistant superintendents, and others in similar positions.

As was pointed out in Chapter 8, decisions must be made which affect some or all of these four groups. In general, these decisions will be of two kinds: those about what should be done (the purposes of the school system), and those about how things should be done (the processes of the school system). Policies must be established through both kinds of decisions. These policies will form the administrative code mentioned in Chapter 19.

Such administrative policies will be established best when those who will be affected by them share, wherever possible, in making them. When this rule is applied, it will be found that in the first area (educational purposes) most decisions will be participated in widely by employees, students, and citizens. In the second area (educational processes) most decisions will be professional or technical and will be participated in largely by trained persons. Such a distinction does not result in a tight compartmentalization of decision-making. There are decisions about *what* should be done, which are highly technical, just as there are decisions about *how* things should be done, which involve the total community. But the general division will hold. Professionals will make most of the decisions about methods and techniques; the total community will make most of the decisions about ends and goals.

The professionals in the school system (this includes all employees)

have very complicated roles to play. As members of the total community with unusual interest in education they will have considerable influence on decisions about what the school system should do. As employees of the school system they will then be expected to assist in the doing. As professionals they will be expected to play a large role in deciding how things should be done in their own area of competence. As employees they will be expected to perform in the new ways.

It is impossible for people to change as rapidly as is indicated by the four roles just mentioned. A man cannot be a policy maker in respect to ends one moment, an executor of policy the next, a participant in decision making about procedure the next moment and, finally, a user of the procedures. As schools operate, the four roles are rarely separate. All four are expected of nearly every person every day. On many occasions this has produced confusion. One of the causes of confusion is failure to recognize the need for a system of organization for establishing and evaluating policy and another system of organization for executing policy. In the preceding chapters of this book attention has been given most frequently to organization for planning and for the evaluation of policy. In the remaining chapters emphasis will be placed on organization for the execution of policy. .

Four categories—doers, recorders, improvers of techniques, and administrators—were listed above. It is desirable to see how the people usually employed in a school system fit these categories. This can be done by examining the following lists:

Doers: teachers, custodians, maintenance workers, purchasers of supplies and equipment, deliverers of supplies and equipment, bus drivers, cooks, social workers, counselors.

Recorders: bookkeepers, clerks, secretaries, teachers, social workers, counselors.

Improvers of techniques: supervisors of guidance, visual aids and other instructional materials, tests and measurement, health, and other special services where there must be continual oversight of the processes used; chief custodian, business manager; chief clerk; supervisors of instruction in the various fields.

Administrators (the getters-of-things-done): superintendent of schools, associate or assistant superintendents in charge of business, personnel, instruction, special services or the like; principals; assistant principals; business manager.

An examination of the above list shows that some positions appear in more than one category. This is caused by the complex character of a school system of adequate size, which calls for some people to do more than one type of work. The teacher, for example, is both a doer and a recorder. While the recording function should be kept at a minimum, nevertheless the teacher must keep enough records about students to help him in deciding what records are most necessary. So it is in other instances. A business manager is concerned largely with improving techniques used in the many activities of purchasing, maintaining, cleaning, and operating things. But he is also an administrator as he deals with principals, teachers, and custodians, bringing his contributions to focus on the activities of the learner.

Which of the types of persons in the above lists are status leaders? By applying the eight criteria developed earlier in the chapter, we can select the following: the superintendent and his staff, the principal, the business manager, the supervisor or director of instruction the supervisor or director of special services, the custodian, the teacher. If the teacher and the custodian view the student as a worker, it will be seen that criterion 4 and the last two items of criterion 8 (page 494) will apply to teacher and custodian. However, the teacher and the custodian are not status leaders with respect to the over-all operation of the school system as a whole.

To sum it all up: The accomplishment of common goals is most effectively realized when there is organization and division of labor. The responsibility for maintaining and improving organization so that plans will be made and carried out necessitates status positions of leadership.

Suggested Reading

John E. Baker, "Leadership—A Modern Concept for the School Administrator," *School Executive* (October, 1949). An argument for improved understanding of leadership by the educational profession.

L. A. Hanna, "Processes in Education," in *Democracy in the Administration of Higher Education*, Harold Benjamin, Editor. This chapter formulates six responsibilities of the status leader and shows how they help the organization he leads.

Alice Miel, *Changing the Curriculum: A Social Process*. Deals with a specific problem of educational leadership. Also shows the need for status leaders if the task of improving schools is to be accomplished.

Functions and Positions of Administrative Service

CHAPTER 21

Every professional person has continuous responsibility for two kinds of improvement. Each has, first, the responsibility of improving his own professional performance on the immediate tasks at hand. He learns what has been discovered by the students within his profession. He practices to acquire and maintain the technical skills of his profession. He reads and thinks and discusses to improve his professional attitude and ethics. He works to become a better professional for the sake of rendering more effective service. At the same time, as a member of a profession, he has a responsibility for improving the profession itself. He works to improve the ideals, the understandings, and the procedures of the profession. The employee serving in a local school system has a responsibility to make it the best possible local school system; yet he must see his work not only in its immediate and local setting but also in relationship to education. He has the responsibility of so applying himself that he works also at contributing to the improvement of education in American life. Each professional has a responsibility to do well the specific work for which he is employed and a pervading commitment to serve his profession.

In the preceding chapter the need for status leaders was presented, with special reference to the local school district. The work of such status leaders will be discussed in Chapter 22. In the present chapter the writers propose to take a broad view of various educational administrative positions. The point of view consistently held throughout the book is that the administration of America's schools is not only a responsibility of the

whole citizenry but that participation of the whole citizenry in such administration is essential to the effective improvement and maintenance of the democratic way of life. Throughout the second part of the book, when decision-making and action-taking for the schools were discussed at many points, the obligations of professionals were distinguished from those of lay citizens. This chapter will consider broadly what kinds of things are to be done and from what kinds of positions they are accomplished as the professionals improve school administration and also the administration of specific schools.

The Functions of Administrative Service

In considering the functions of workers in educational administration, six broad categories are proposed:

1. The development of basic principles and understandings,
2. The development of engineering applications,
3. The communication of information about developments,
4. Service as action agent,
5. The coördination of educational activities, and
6. The appraisal of educational activities.

The Development of Basic Principles and Understandings

The development of basic principles and understandings represents the fundamental research contributing to a consistent theory of educational administration. At this level the field of educational administration must reach out to all administration and to all the basic disciplines in its search. For that reason much of the basic research of possible pertinence to educational administration may not properly be considered as strictly within the field of educational administration; it may more properly be classified as philosophy, psychology, sociology, economics, anthropology, or some other area. The identification it might have with educational administration rests with the kinds of individuals conducting the investigations.

For example, such investigations might include careful consideration

of the process of social change. This might be accomplished by testing hypotheses in experimental situations. It might be carried on through the establishment of posts of observation at several points where careful records over long periods of time could be kept for analysis. It might be carried on through investigation of changes which have taken place and the manner in which they occurred. This latter type of investigation might be made through interview and questionnaire, through analysis of existing primary records, or through recorded reports of journalists and other observers who wrote about the change as it was in process. Investigations might include studies of the economic value of education, the interpersonal relations of individuals working in groups, the intergroup relationships of various organizations in our culture, the basis of interest of citizens in school operation. Investigations may also be undertaken to consider the development of principles and basic understandings for educational administration through studying the findings and their relationships from the basic disciplines or from the various fields of administration.¹

Work at this fundamental level is important if school administration is to be more than an assortment of expedient procedures available for trial and adaptation until a fit procedure is found for the immediate situation. Through the consideration and study of composite experience in school administration, progress beyond such a point has been made. The profession needs continuous basic study as a foundation for improvement. It is of value to know what procedures seemed to work in specific situations, but it is more essential to know why they worked. When the basic understandings of why procedures work are established, and when the specific procedures from various situations are offered primarily as illustrations of the basic understandings, the profession will be well on its way to the provision of knowledge by which the procedures for specific situations may be developed as they are needed. This might avoid recourse to a repertory of procedures that have seemed to fit in other situations and from which the administrator may pick courses of action for trial.

The Development of Engineering Applications

The development of engineering applications of fundamental principles and basic understandings lies at the point of determining why something which works does work. It is on the basis of this discovery that a new procedure or form or material may be developed which may work or which

¹ For a report of this latter sort, see Jess B. Sears, *The Nature of the Administrative Process*.

may work better. We know so much more than we are able to use that there is great need for implementation of research findings. There should always be a great deal more that we know than that we are using. We need this store of basic knowledge on which to draw to meet the problems of the immediate situation. However, as we continuously draw upon our accumulation of principles and basic understandings, we must have work going on in the discovery of new basic truths concurrently with the implementation of those findings in action situations. The development of engineering applications of basic knowledge depends as much upon sensitivity to educational need in specific current and future situations as it does upon familiarity with the findings of fundamental research. The worker engaged in the application of basic knowledge to school problems approaches the problem from the viewpoint of the practical situation that confronts him. That is, he is motivated by a felt need. He goes to the findings of basic research for his solution. He does not study basic research to pick out a new truth which he then seeks to apply. He studies basic research in seeking clues for truths which may provide the basis for meeting current and future needs.

Several illustrations of the need of engineering applications will help. In the development of curriculum change during the past twenty years, a vast amount of new curriculum material has been prepared. New courses, new resource units, and supplementary materials have been provided, only to lie dust-gathering on many shelves. Their assimilation into the educational program is dependent upon a lot of engineering development with respect to the scheduling of classes, the evaluation procedures to be used, the report forms to parents, the cumulative record system, the basis for graduation, the certification of teachers, the pre-service training of teachers, the provision and storing for accessibility of materials of instruction, the interpretation of changes to parents, the in-service training of teachers.

The changed conception of the nature of education and the breadth of the general education program may represent new truth still to be implemented in school operation. Development of new forms of communication and widespread participation are essential. The fulfillment of needs requires a reorganization of school districts. What forms shall such reorganization take? How shall it be accomplished? Is there some desirable form and size for school district organization, or should those working on engineering principles develop a procedure that will insure

sufficient fluidity of district organization so that the organization can be geared to educational need rather than having the educational service geared to the size and form of district organization?

In a world where coöperation is so desperately needed and in a country where democratic respect for every individual is held as an ideal, there is need for considerable design and tryout of activities and of teaching procedures in keeping with world needs and our own values. To what extent can team-teaching be organized? To what extent can pupil-teacher planning and evaluating be made effective? On what basis is class size to be determined? How can channels of communication be established among pupils throughout the world? How can coöperative study and action be provided between different classes within the same school and between classes of different schools?

In an economy that is changing from independent-agricultural to interdependent-industrial-agricultural-commercial, what changes in the structure of school finance must be accomplished? What is the effect on school support of concentration of means of production in small areas? What is the implication for school financial structure of the mobility of our population? What procedures can be designed to assure adequate support for all pupils throughout the country from funds equitably collected?

There are problems of implementation to be solved for America's schools in general, and there are many specific problems to be solved for each of America's schools.

The Communication of Information about Developments

Another function of administrative service is that of communicating information about what is happening and should be happening in education. The value of diversity in American education can be realized only as workers in education know what is being thought and done elsewhere and with what success or difficulties. This exchange of information represents an important administrative service. It is accomplished through professional and lay periodicals, and through professional books, bulletins, monographs. It is accomplished through professional organizations and through a wide variety of conventions, representative committees, conferences, workshops. It is accomplished as individuals from state and national offices visit the variety of school situations, picking up valuable

procedures and encountering perplexing problems and reporting them wherever they will be useful or challenging. At each post from which information is communicated there is the reciprocal need for receiving information. Visiting school situations is but one means of gathering information. Receiving information involves hearing all the suggestions and complaints about the schools. It involves keeping up to date through reading both the professional and the lay press.

Service as Action Agent

The research discovery of principles and basic understandings, the development of engineering applications useful in school situations, the dissemination of information about what is happening in American education are most important, but they would be of little avail if there were no doing of what seems best to do. The function of administrative service as action agent is the function most readily identified with the usual notion of school administration. As indicated in the preceding chapter, in order to get things done our society assigns responsibility, which may be delegated but which is never abandoned. For each formal educational program in operation there must be assigned responsibility. Some agent must see that the staff is assembled, that pupils are registered, that accounts are kept, that buildings and equipment are provided, that teaching materials are available, that there is a workable schedule, that doors will be unlocked on time, that buses will meet their schedule, that the school cafeteria will have lunches ready at the right time for a sufficient number, that space is available for community groups which want to meet, that committees interested in salary schedules or curriculum problems or health service may get together.

The list would seem to be virtually endless. Who sees that orders for supplies are issued, that pay checks are available for distribution at the end of each month, that the time signals are set for the right times, that the shrubbery in front of the building is trimmed, that various civic groups have the information they would like about the school program and that their comments and suggestions are given consideration by school people? Who plans the agenda for the board of education, investigates the qualifications of prospective employees, answers the calls for information and for reaction to complaints from school patrons? In each classroom, in each building, in each local school system, at each intermediate

district office, in each state office, there is need for action agents who will carry responsibility for operating the educational program.

Education also needs action agents at the various legislative groups in our civic life. Who takes responsibility for nursing into a law the enabling legislation that will make it possible for local school programs to operate effectively? Such action agents may be representatives of professional groups or of citizen groups interested in schools. They may be members of state boards of education or state departments of education. They may be members of committees of the legislature. With all the study and research leading up to the proposal that "there ought to be a law," there never will be a law unless someone assumes the responsibility for drafting it and driving through on its enactment. With respect to educational legislation we usually think of this action at the state level. We should not overlook the fact that the local board of education is a legislative body and that the national Congress also considers legislation affecting education.

Another need for service as action agent is in securing the adoption of ideas and procedures by educators and by the public. Such action is a responsibility of those in positions of administrative leadership but may be assumed by any professional or interested lay individual. The consideration and adoption of ideas and procedures involves more than merely bringing information about them. It is teaching. It is the development of in-service improvement programs. It involves the use of action-research methods not for the research findings but for the production of action.

The Coordination of Educational Activities

A fifth function of administrative services is the coordination of educational activities. In any situation there is some limit on the amount of money, time, staff, space, and physical facilities available. Some balance of all educational activities must be achieved within the limits of this framework. This involves having the various individuals and groups of individuals engaged in educational activity understand and appreciate the work of each other. It involves fitting such activities together in the most appropriate sequence and in relationships by which the good of each will be reinforced rather than duplicated or interfered with by the others.

Other examples of coordination include the following: Attention must be given to coordinating the amount and location of school building facilities with the number of pupils to be served. This coordination is

important on a state and national basis as well as within a local school district. There must be attention to coördinating the preparation of various kinds of teachers with the demand that will exist for their services. Coördination of program is essential between various schools in a state or region to avoid extreme difficulty when pupils transfer from one community to another. Agencies of coördination must operate in setting up schedules and procedures for activities involving interscholastic participation.

The Appraisal of Educational Activities

The sixth function of administrative services is that of appraisal. Appraisal of what is going on in education is important. It may take the form of accreditation for the protection of the public and for supervisory review as a basis for improving the program and services. As accreditation it involves the establishment of standards and appropriate investigation to determine that standards have been met. This is a protection to the public against purchasing inferior education. In this respect it corresponds somewhat to protective practices involved in the federal pure food and drug administration and in checks on the factual basis of advertising of commercial concerns, the inspection of scales, the examination of banks, and the like. It is appraisal in the form of supervisory review that provides the basis for educational leadership. As supervisory review, appraisal has little in common with inspection. Appraisal that provides a basis for educational leadership should be a group undertaking. (In this connection the reader is referred to Chapter 18.) Such appraisal can be planned to fit the situation at hand, and its implications for development are dependent upon the degree to which it is understood and accepted by pupils, citizens, and staff members involved.

Positions of Administrative Service

The functions of administrative service cannot be translated into job descriptions fitting positions available in educational administration. They are present in a variety of combinations in various positions, and their presence may depend as much upon the person as upon the position. When individuals contemplate careers in school administration, there are a variety of positions in which they may serve. These are considered in the following categories:

1. Positions in local school systems,
2. Positions in state departments of education,
3. Positions in the United States Office of Education,
4. Positions in higher education,
5. Positions in education programs in business and industry,
6. Positions in private schools,
7. Executive positions with a variety of organizations interested in education.

Administrative Positions in Local School Systems

Those considering careers in local school administration will look toward either the superintendency or some position on the central administrative staff of a school district, or toward the principalship of an attendance unit. The work of such individuals will be discussed in some detail in the following chapter. At least 95 per cent of the careers in school administration are to be found in positions with local school districts. Local school administration is one of the starting points for many of the other possible careers in educational administration.

What kind of individual is needed in positions of local school administration? An idealistic answer is phrased in the following excerpts from a statement of the country's professors of educational administration:

Cultural and Occupational Preparation

He must have a broad general education which touches upon the various facets of human experience.

He must be widely informed in current events, in current social opinion, and in historical perspective.

He must know the facts and techniques of sociology, government, politics, and economics.

He must know the educational implications of the major philosophies, and he must know the trends of educational history.

He must be well grounded in educational psychology, in biology and anthropology, in the tools of research, and in the major outcomes of educational research.

The school relies on professional techniques which have been devised to implement its function. These techniques include curriculum development, guidance, special education, audio-visual education, art and music education, industrial arts and vocational education, library techniques,

reading techniques, remedial methods, and many others. To judge the effectiveness of programs involving these techniques, *the school leader must have a broad preparation which includes the principles and scientific bases upon which these professional educational techniques have been developed.*

He needs to know the tools of supervision, of public relations, of pupil personnel relations.

He must have exceptional competence in speaking, in writing, in listening, in interview techniques, in the techniques of conference participation—in all communication media.

He needs to understand the interlocking pattern of local and state control, the law which governs education, the most effective patterns of school board operation, and the financial pattern by which taxation is—in the best instances—oriented to the support of public services.

Management of the school is facilitated by the tools of administration: accounting, budgeting, building maintenance, supply management, insurance, personnel administration, office management, and many others. Therefore, *the school leader needs a high degree of skill and know-how in the ministerial tasks related to his office.*

Personal Qualifications

An administrator is a person with vision. Vision results from knowledge, from experience, from imagination. It can be cultivated. The administrator can, and does, develop his power to rise above details and routine, to transcend local tradition, and to formulate and examine hypotheses and possibilities.

An administrator is increasingly competent in employing democratic and democratic-tending techniques of group action. The repertoire of techniques includes building group morale, developing group expertise in problem solving, guiding group meetings, and bringing discussants back to the point.

An administrator assumes the responsibility for providing organizational machinery to facilitate the operation of democratic leadership. He will have to find the time for meetings, provide for channels of communication, concentrate the handling of burdensome details, simplify the channels between decision and action.

An administrator fosters a psychological atmosphere in which democratic leadership can flourish. For good or ill, an administrator affects most critically the psychological-emotional "tone" of a school system. Much of the atmosphere he creates comes about automatically because of his beliefs, but he cannot trust to accident in fostering a favorable climate.

An administrator, in the execution of his own legal responsibilities, exemplifies belief in democratic leadership relations. Even though he could gain acceptance of his order by employing personal charm or by virtue of the legal power of his office he does not take that route. He gets

group consideration of the problem, group decisions on what seems best; and he shows that he really believes the group can reach a better decision on this point than he can.

An administrator sets the example of evaluating results in terms of total achievement toward democratic ideals, rather than solely in terms of some immediate objective.

An administrator consistently demonstrates his conviction that democracy leads to efficiency.

An administrator seeks to achieve—not exercise—leadership through the contributions he makes to the success of the group's efforts.

An administrator is a talent scout and a coach. He is in a better position than his colleagues to discover persons with ideas, persons with special skills, persons with talents. He provides enterprises in which many persons can learn the techniques of good leadership relations. He seeks to move forward to the time when the leadership of his colleagues will have more good things going on than any one person can keep his fingers on.

An administrator is responsible but not overburdened by his responsibility. He is working with responsible people, and the responsibility for each person is not his alone. He has rather the responsibility for leadership service in the group, and although he works in this capacity with concern for all and for the attainment of group goals, his burden is the quality of group leadership, not control of or blame for every thought and feeling and action of every member of the group.²

One of the significant concerns of our times is the present serious study of the selection, preparation, and on-the-job improvement of school administrators. It took a mechanized and technical warfare to confront the American people with the necessity for and effectiveness of education. It has taken a rigorous ideological conflict of world-wide dimensions to make us realize that final decisions will be in the minds of men and that skill-training alone is not enough. In such a setting the position of the local school administrator is seen in its actual importance to the survival of democracy. We have been stirred to a real concern about the selection and training of the individuals who will serve in these positions. With the development of a clear notion of the job of the local school administrator, with the identification of qualities to be required in initial selection, with the determination of the competencies and understandings to be achieved through pre-service and in-service training, we may look for

² Excerpts from Chapter 3, "Qualifications for Educational Leadership," *Providing and Improving Administrative Leadership for America's Schools*, report of the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, Van Miller, ed. (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951), pp. 25-30. Used by permission. [Italics in original.]

a sharpening of the administrative leadership provided and for an extension of the practice of democracy.³

In the past a number of factors have attracted individuals to local school administration. In some instances local school systems drafted individual staff members to positions of leadership because of their outstanding ability or popularity. Among the obvious appeals drawing individuals into training programs and into candidacy for such positions have been the larger gross salary as compared with that of teaching positions, the apparent prestige position of the administrators in the community and with the staff, and the flexible time schedule for administrative work. Many times the flexible time schedule is seen as an easier load. It seems to observers that the administrator has time to talk to almost everyone, but they are unaware of the extent to which he has provided time to talk to almost everyone by shifting other duties to early morning and late evening hours. The power of the position is sometimes expressed as his "right to hire and fire school personnel," without full realization of the difficulties involved in doing either. (The reader is referred to the discussion presented in Chapter 12.) As a democratic leader he must impose much self-restriction on himself. His position of prestige and power is dependent upon his ability to respond to people and to serve them effectively. The larger gross salary has not always meant more money in the bank because of the greatly increased professional and social obligations. In fact, recent research shows that teachers' salaries have increased in purchasing power since 1939, whereas those of administrators have decreased in purchasing power. The salary advantage is becoming less and may result in a lowering of the quality of leadership in education.

To a large extent advancement in local school administration has been

³ At the present time coöperative efforts are under way with participation of the American Association of School Administrators, the Council of Chief State School Officers, the National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, and the National Conference of County and Rural Area Superintendents. The 1952 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators is to report on a study of the school superintendent. The 1950 Yearbook of the Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, is entitled *The County Superintendent of Schools*. Area study clubs, such as the Chicago Area Superintendents Study Club, are devoting time to a study of the superintendent of schools.

With funds from the Kellogg Foundation, developmental centers for pre-service and in-service training in school administration have been established at Harvard University, Columbia University, the University of Chicago, George Peabody College for Teachers, the University of Texas, Ohio State University, and the University of Oregon. The developmental work at these centers is planned to involve coöperation from other institutions with training programs in school administration.

a game of working up. In a few school systems the chief administrator has worked his way up from a position as a classroom teacher by serving as an assistant principal, a principal, a supervisor, an assistant to the superintendent, an associate superintendent. The more frequent practice has been that of bringing in the chief administrator from outside the system. The advantage of this procedure is that he may come in and establish interpersonal relations from such a position without having to go through the process of wearing off any hampering residual relationships from former association. As individuals sought to get ahead in school administration, it was common practice to seek a top job in a system, no matter how small the system might be, as a foothold from which to climb. Such a tradition has tended to make the school superintendents of the many small communities of our country a somewhat migratory group and may have prevented the development of long-range programs of growth for many such school systems.

It is possible that this "work-up" procedure has represented a real disadvantage in the development of school administration. In many of the very small schools which were starting points for administrators, the administrator had to carry a full teaching load in addition to his administrative responsibilities. As a result he administered only as much as he had to. This meant that he did the ordering of supplies when needed, filled out report forms as required, sought teachers when needed but had little time to follow through on supervision after they were employed, and settled complaints and troubles as they arose. Such a pattern casts the administrative function in somewhat the same pattern as that of the policeman or fireman who is waiting for trouble to happen and plans to be on hand to settle it. If this same pattern of behavior is carried from one job to the next, the change in assignment may represent little more than greater release from the routine of teaching and greater effort in the direction of avoiding trouble, since that makes the job of trouble-shooting easier.

The reorganization of school districts into administrative units of adequate size will eliminate these top-job starting points that were available in small school districts in the past and from which successful individuals worked their way from small country towns to the city or to the wealthy suburban community. The elimination of such starting points should improve the development of school administrators. It will do so only if we realize the need for providing alternative routes. To attain such improve-

ment the central staff administrative positions in large systems should not be posts for patronage or seniority but should become the area of tryout and of internship for young school administrators. The operation of any local school system must also be organized to provide part-time administrative assignments for young teachers who show promise of becoming able school administrators. It must be recognized, however, that the reorganization of school districts is producing very desirable local administrative positions in rural areas, thus reducing the need to move to the city or to the wealthy suburban community in order to get ahead. This reorganization, making possible the retention of able leadership in rural regions, represents a frontier area of development in school administration in contrast to the positions in city schools where administrative patterns are already fairly well established.

Administrative positions in the attendance unit are those of teaching-principal and supervising-principal. In large secondary schools additional administrative positions are found in those of deans of boys and girls, athletic directors, and heads of departments. Responsibility of building principals is most directly related to the teaching staff of the school, the administration of pupil personnel, and work with individual parents and with building-unit organizations of parents. It is also concerned with reports to the central office, with custody of the building, with the requisition of supplies and repairs and services, and with participation in budget preparation.

The functions of the central administrative staff may be embodied in one superintendent or may be spread over a large number of people—depending mostly on the size of the school system. For example, the Chicago Public Schools, with one general superintendent of schools, have a central staff including the following administrative staff positions:

Assistant to the General Superintendent

Bureau of research and statistics—Director

Division of statistics—Director

Division of building surveys—Director

Bureau of public relations—Director

Bureau of office services—Manager

Department of Instruction and Guidance—Assistant Superintendent

Bureau of instruction materials—Director

Division of curriculum development—Director

Division of textbook selection—Director

- Division of libraries—Director
- Division of visual education—Director
- Division of radio—Director
- Bureau of subject supervision—Director
 - Division of music—Director
 - Division of art—Director
 - Division of industrial arts—Director
 - Division of home economics—Director
 - Division of health and physical education—Director
 - Division of ROTC
 - Division of commercial subjects—Director
- Bureau of education extension—Director
 - Division of recreation—Director
 - Playground section—Director and assistant director
 - Social centers section—Director
 - Division of Americanization—Director
 - Division of evening and summer schools—Director
- Department of Elementary Education—Assistant Superintendent and nine elementary school district superintendents.
- Department of Secondary Education—Assistant Superintendent and five high school district superintendents
- Department of Vocational Education
 - Bureau of technical subjects—Director
 - Bureau of special services—Director
 - Bureau of veterans' training—Director
 - Bureau of distributive education—Director
- Department of Special Education—Assistant Superintendent
 - Bureau of exceptional children—Director
 - Bureau of special classes—
 - Bureau of child study—Director
 - Division of guidance and counseling—Assistant Director
 - Employment certificates section—Coordinator
- Department of Personnel—Assistant Superintendent
 - Bureau of teacher personnel—Director
 - Division of substitute teacher assignment—Director
 - Bureau of administrative and office personnel—Director
 - Division of school clerks—Director
 - Bureau of operation, maintenance, and lunchroom personnel—Director
 - Division of lunchroom personnel—Director
 - Bureau of civil service records—Director

Department of Purchases—Director

Four buyers, one in charge of printing plant

Assistant purchasing agent

Division of clerical services

Book requisition section

Invoice checking section

Testing laboratory

Division of supplies—Superintendent

Division of purchase specifications

Division of property control

Department of Architecture and Building Repair—Architect

Bureau of architecture—assistant architect

Division of architecture office service

Division of drafting

Division of construction

Division of specifications

Division of fire prevention and safety

Division of special assignments

Bureau of general maintenance and repair

Bureau of electrical and mechanical repair

Department of Plant Engineering and Lunchrooms—Director

Bureau of plant engineering—Chief Engineer

District supervising engineer

District inspector of school property

Division of mechanical equipment

Bureau of lunchrooms—Director

Division of lunchroom office service

Division of lunchroom statistics

Division of test kitchens

Division of lunchroom equipment

District supervisor of lunchrooms

Department of Finance—Controller

Bureau of the budget—Director

Bureau of accounting—Chief accountant

Division of accounts

Employees' payroll deduction section

Division of depository and redemption

Division of lunchroom and school activity accounts

Division of real estate

Bureau of audits—Assistant Auditor

Division of invoice and tax warrant audit

- Division of teacher payroll audit
- Division of civil service payroll audit
- Division of school field audit
- Division of reconciliation
- Division of machine tabulation
- Bureau of payrolls—Paymaster
- Division of teacher payroll
- Division of civil service payroll⁴

In reviewing the above list, it should be noted that in a rural area there would be staff positions related to school transportation. Where adequate health services are not available from some municipal or county health agency, there would also be personnel required for school health services.

It is obvious that there are few school systems in the country requiring the degree of specialization necessary in Chicago. It is also obvious that the routes into some of the special positions indicated are through initial positions and training other than classroom teaching. The extreme spread represented by the central staff organization of the Chicago schools will help emphasize the need on the central staff for some one or more individuals to be concerned with instructional supervision, curriculum development, research and planning, audio-visual aids to education, guidance and pupil personnel, health services, business management, transportation, buildings and grounds. The central office needs to make definite provision for supervising instruction; curriculum development; evaluation of the effectiveness of instruction; selection, assignment, and adjustment of professional and non-professional personnel; admission, assignment, and transfer of pupil personnel; health services; psychological services; guidance; pupil accounting; selection, purchase, storage, and distribution of supplies and equipment; budget-making; financial records and reports; preparation of payroll and of warrants for salaries and other items of expenditure; school plant development; housekeeping and maintenance; transportation.

How does a man or woman get a start in local school administration? With few exceptions the start will still be made as a classroom teacher. The exceptions may be in fields of specialization where students prepare themselves specifically in school finance and business management, in accounting, in school housing, in school transportation, in school cafeteria operation, or in statistics and research. With such preparation the individ-

⁴ *Illinois School Directory, 1949-50*, pp. 37-40.

ual will need to be able to go directly into a large enough school system to justify a staff position corresponding to his area of specialization. The more traditional route may be described as follows: The individual prepares for a teaching position in elementary education, teaches and carries additional graduate work in preparing to supervise elementary education or to accept a position as an elementary-school building principal. In such a position he carries additional work or gains a variety of experiences on special assignments in preparation for a central staff position or eventually for a school superintendency. Or the individual prepares for a secondary-school teaching position, teaches and takes additional course work including courses preparatory to serving in administrative positions, seeks a high-school principalship or a school superintendency.

In the past a large number of school superintendents have been men who formerly did some coaching of school athletics. Many times such an individual got into coaching simply because he was the only man teacher in a small high school. Coaching experience brings these individuals to public attention, gives them a trial run on their ability to stand up under public pressure, acquaints them with the wide variety of high-school teachers through their concern over eligibility requirements, and gives them some experience in public speaking. It also involves many administrative functions, including selection, purchase, maintenance, and management of equipment, assignment of personnel, provision of transportation, financial management. School superintendents have also been drawn from commercial-subject teachers with their interest in management, forms, and salesmanship and from social-studies teachers with their interest in government. Superintendents have also been drawn from those whose initial professional work was in other subject fields. In the past, entrance into these teaching fields and success in them has been one of the selective factors with respect to a considerable number of school administrators. As the job is more clearly defined and the training program more directly developed, recruitment can be made from any of the teaching staff and adequate tryout opportunity provided to give a basis for decision.

Positions in State Departments of Education

Positions in state departments of education offer one of the best areas for specialization in administrative service to schools.

The 48 State departments of education in January, 1949, employed 3,548 full-time professional staff members. The number of members ranged from 8 in North Dakota to 537 in New York; the average was 74.

Each of 9 States had a total of 20 or fewer; 21 had 50 or fewer; only 9 had over 100. Each of 13 departments employed from 51 to 75 professional staff members.⁵

The areas of specialization possible may be represented in the kinds of divisions found in state departments of education. Such areas most commonly found are vocational education, vocational rehabilitation, instruction, school lunch, administration, secondary education, elementary education, Negro education, special education, certification, finance, transportation, health education, school buildings and grounds. It is to be noted also that in many states the county superintendent or the district superintendent is paid by the state and is, in effect, an arm of the state education department working in the field close to the local school districts. The ways in which state departments and county superintendencies serve education were described in Chapter 5.

Individuals acquire positions in state departments of education and in offices of county or district school superintendents in a variety of ways. Thirty-one of the forty-eight chief state school officers are elected by the people at popular elections. In some states this is done on a nonpartisan ballot, but in many states the candidate for position of state superintendent runs as a member of one of the political parties. In these states there are legal qualifications, just as there are stated legal qualifications for most political offices. In eleven states the chief state school officer is appointed by a state board of education. In other states appointment is made by the governor. In similar fashion county superintendents are frequently elected by popular vote or selected by county boards of education, sometimes with the approval of the chief state school officer. Chief state school officers, especially when their position is gained through election, have generally had previous experience within the state as local or county school administrators. Where the chief state school officer is appointed, local and county administrators may be considered for appointment along with career people within the state department of education or from other state departments of education, professors of education, and local school administrators from outside the state.

Positions on the staff in state departments of education or as assistants in the office of the county superintendent are usually attained by appointment by the chief officer or a personnel officer. In some cases such appointments must be made from a list furnished by a civil service commission, so

⁵ Fred F. Beach and Andrew H. Gibbs, *The Structure of State Departments of Education* (Federal Security Agency, U.S. Office of Education, 1949), p. 13.

that examinations serve as part of the basis for considering the individual. In state departments like that in New York, professional staff members may achieve tenure and hold a relatively secure position from which to render a lifetime of effective service. In many of the county offices and in many of the state departments, the assistant's tenure in office is dependent upon continuance in office of the county superintendent or the chief state school officer. Much professional opinion favors—and there is some evidence of movement toward—establishment of boards of education at state and county levels with the selection of state and county superintendents accomplished on a professional basis by the board. As such organization is achieved, it will be more directly possible to train for service as a generalist or specialist in education to work at these various levels.

Positions in the United States Office of Education

In Chapter 5 the work and organization of the United States Office of Education were described. This Office represents opportunities for administrative service to a relatively few people in terms of all of the kinds of positions in educational administration. The functions of workers in the federal Office are primarily those of collecting and disseminating information about what is happening in education for the purpose of stimulating and achieving coordination of educational enterprises throughout the country. Positions in the Office offer some opportunity for action research. They also offer opportunity for specialization in administrative service. The positions carry civil service classification and relatively secure tenure and are filled by appointment on the basis of civil service classification.

Administrative Positions in Higher Education

There are several kinds of educational administrative positions in higher education. To date there are few, if any, training programs offered for such service other than for those seeking to serve as deans or directors of student personnel. Among the kinds of positions in higher education that may be considered posts of administrative service, the following are included: presidents, comptrollers, directors of admissions, registrars, bursars, deans, assistant deans, provosts, executive assistants, directors of professional personnel, directors of non-academic personnel, directors of student affairs. Presidents of teachers' colleges and deans of colleges of education

may be drawn from those trained and experienced in public school administration: College and university presidents are drawn from a variety of sources. It is likely that most of them did not set out at the beginning of their undergraduate college work or professional career to become college presidents. Individuals to serve in the other positions listed are drawn from a variety of previous experience.

Those administering institutions of higher learning are in positions of great influence with respect to public education. Throughout the past half century the educational offerings, particularly of secondary schools, have been greatly influenced by the admissions requirements of higher institutions of learning. These institutions also select and train the teachers for our public schools. Our schools are mostly good or bad in terms of the kind of professional personnel the colleges are able to provide for us.

In the colleges and universities a related position of service to educational administration is that of the teacher of courses in educational administration, the research professor working on administration problems, the field workers of college staffs helping local communities on surveys, workshops, consultation, and the like. To a large extent people in these positions can look at American education with some detachment and think about policy and plans for its future. They can do so because they are not self-involved in local school programs directly, because they do have direct acquaintance and experience with a wide number of local school programs, because they have opportunities through work with associations of administrators and through conferences to pool the thinking of a great many people. In some of the special research areas or in some specialized fields of administration it is frequently possible for individuals to achieve regular positions by way of working on the special area as a graduate student and as a graduate assistant. The more general pattern has been to draw upon individuals who have had both training and experience in school administration.

Administration of Education Programs in Business and Industry

During World War II business and industry had favorable experiences with the organization and operation of training programs to upgrade employees and to give initial training to unskilled applicants for positions. These organizations drew upon their own employees for instructors since these people knew the machine operations, the materials, and the processes

of their manufacturing or distributing enterprises. Through experience they found great value in drawing, from the field of education, individuals who could administer programs of training these employees to teach effectively and who could organize and administer the educational program in which training was carried on. Some companies had used educational directors for many years before the war of the forties, but the pressure of war production demands gave occasion to many more companies to experience the value of services of educators.

Such positions probably represent a new development which will present competition for the services of those able in educational administration and which may thereby increase the status of administrators of local school programs as well. During the war years school administrators from local systems were called upon to direct training programs in bomb-loading plants, plants manufacturing airplanes, and plants manufacturing other war materials. Some of them stayed on with the companies after the war. The armed services also made use of trained and experienced educators in the improvement and operation of their own training programs. Such opportunities represent a still proportionately uncommon field of careers in educational administration but one which individuals and training institutions should not overlook.

Administrative Positions in Private Schools

Most of the private schools in our country are church-related in some way, and in many of these the individuals attaining positions of school administration are members of the religious faith supporting the school. Motivation for service in such positions must generally be much stronger than any contingent motivation for financial reward. Individuals coming into positions of administration in church-related schools might do well to seek sufficient support from the sponsoring church organization for additional training in administration. Many of them are able to do so. Another type of private school is that set up as a commercial venture. In such a school the degree to which it is possible to select students and to experiment with programs and procedures represents an unusual opportunity as long as the program is salable to a large enough number of people with money.

In general, there is something of a cleavage between public and private schools, so that people in educational administration do not move readily

from one to the other. Moreover, those trained and experienced in administration of public schools are likely to have a strong personal commitment to the American public schools, which would prevent their effectively filling administrative positions in private schools.

Executive Positions with Organizations Interested in Education

A rather miscellaneous but nevertheless highly important kind of position in which educational administrative service is rendered is that of executive positions with various kinds of organizations. The acquisition of many of these positions depends both on ability and on being well acquainted and well known in the profession. In big organizations consideration for executive positions may be dependent not only upon having ability but also on being known by the present staff or executive committee or someone well known to them. No attempt is made here to list and describe all of the possibilities, but an attempt is made to give some indication of the kinds of positions.

The National Education Association has nearly four hundred employees in its headquarters building in Washington. Willard E. Givens, the Executive Secretary, is administrative head of the staff of the Association and is spokesman for the Association. There are an Associate Secretary, an Assistant Secretary for Business, and Assistant Secretary for Professional Relations, and fifteen headquarters divisions each headed by a director: Accounts, Administrative Service, Adult Education Service, Audio-Visual Instructional Service, Business, Field Service, Legislative and Federal Relations, Membership, Publications, Press and Radio Relations, Records, Research, Rural Service, Secretary's Office, and Travel Service.⁶ There are also twenty-nine departments of the Association, and most of these departments have executive secretaries. The American Association of School Administrators, which is one of these departments, has an executive secretary and an assistant executive secretary. All these positions on the regular staff represent career opportunities in posts of administrative service. Whenever a national professional organization is strong enough to maintain a regular headquarters office, it is likely that a career position as executive secretary is available. This is also true for state educational associations. They provide opportunities for

⁶ Lyle W. Ashby, "The National Education Association," *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. XXVI, No. 3 (November, 1949), pp. 99-120.

professional staff members in the administration of the work of the organization and in the research and service opportunities represented. Corresponding positions are available in many states in the executive offices of state high-school activity or athletic associations.

Philanthropic foundations employ educational directors who receive requests for allocations for research and development, who work out the administrative details governing the use of such allocations, and who help appraise, at least for the board of directors of the foundation, the results of the projects to which financial support is given. One foundation, the General Education Board, is primarily concerned with educational development. Many others, including the Commonwealth Fund, the Sloane Foundation, the Carnegie Foundation, the Kellogg Foundation, and the Ford Foundation, have participated in projects concerned with education.

Another possible area of service is that of professional staff positions with school-related organizations and with other groups who have some concern for education from time to time. The National Association of School Boards has recently established a headquarters office with an executive secretary. In some of the states, associations of school boards maintain executive staffs. In Illinois, for example, the association of school boards maintains an executive secretary and two field secretaries—all of whom may be considered to hold positions of professional administrative service. The National Citizens' Commission for the Public Schools has also set up a headquarters staff for the time being and has drawn as a professional worker an executive from industry. In some major cities voluntary organizations friendly to school support have been formed and have employed executive staffs to manage and promote their programs of school support. Public Education Association, New York City, is such an organization.

In addition to these school-related groups educational directors are sometimes employed by special-interest groups seeking to influence school programs and school legislation. Thus an educator might find a career of administrative service with a state chamber of commerce, with a state agricultural association, with a large labor organization, with an association of manufacturers.

This chapter has sketched seven categories of positions in educational administration. When a person reports his intention to enter a career in

educational administration, it is entirely appropriate to ask: What kind of career? What kind of educational administration? Even in the area of local school administration, which to most people represents the whole field, there are many possibilities and many routes to change and development. Because all of the kinds of positions indicated in the above discussion do have a very real effect on American education, we must see them all related in the service of the schools. We must be concerned about the kind of people who choose to enter such careers, and the kind who are selected for the various positions of service. We must be concerned about their qualifications and their training. We must understand the way in which the work in any educational administrative position affects educational administration in our country, and we must see that those occupying such positions are also aware of and concerned with their relationship to one another.

Suggested Reading

J. B. Edmondson, *The Administration of the Modern Secondary School*. A revised and enlarged edition of a 1941 issue entitled *Secondary School Administration*. The book is now divided into six major parts: the changing nature of the secondary school; organizing and administering the secondary school; guidance of pupils; instructional questions; school relationships; and a final section on practices and trends. Selected references at the end of each chapter.

P. B. Jacobson and others, *Duties of School Principals*. An exhaustive treatment of the field of principalship, citing nearly one thousand sources throughout its 790 pages. The authors seem to have covered every possible feature. Reading lists are supplied at the close of each chapter.

J. Lund, "Emerging Programs for Improving Educational Leadership in American Education," *School Life* (November, 1949). A brief account of the third annual work conference for professors of educational administration, held in August, 1949, in Michigan.

National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, "Educational Leaders, Their Function and Preparation," *School Executive* (March, 1949). The regular "Education Planning" feature is, in this issue, devoted to a summary of and commentary on the second annual work conference for professors of educational administration from forty-five graduate institutions. The

conference was held in early autumn of 1948 at the University of Wisconsin.

National Conference of Professors of Educational Administration, *Providing and Improving Administrative Leadership for America's Schools*, Van Miller, Editor. Synthesizes and modernizes the preceeding bulletins of this organization. Contains the best current thought.

The Status Leader at Work

CHAPTER 22

Public schools are related directly and indirectly to so many aspects of American life that the status leaders of the schools must work in a wide variety of relationships with individuals and organized groups. Many of these were discussed in Chapter 4. Portions of that chapter dealt with the ways in which community groups can be of good influence if the status leader works with them in a desirable manner. In order to get a complete picture of the status leader at work, it is suggested that Chapter 4 be re-read at this point. Such a review of the chapter should be undertaken with special attention to the work of the status leader with the agencies of municipal government and with the parent-teacher associations. Particular attention should be given to the working organization of the board of education, which is presented in that chapter.

This chapter will be devoted largely to a discussion of the work of the status leader with the school staff, the students, the organized profession, and the community as a whole. Before turning to those topics, it may be helpful to present in more detail a specific illustration of the work of the status leader with the board of education in policy-making.

In Chapter 20, in discussing the execution of policy, the provision of instructional materials without cost to students was given as an illustration. How does a school system establish a policy such as this? Frequently, such a policy is made because the superintendent convinces the board that it is necessary. He is aware of the injustice of requiring students who cannot afford to purchase material to choose between doing poorly in school, confessing their financial plight in order to get assistance, or dropping out

of school. He will have read studies of the hidden cost of attending the supposedly free public schools. He will investigate the situation in his district, making studies of the amounts spent by students and by teachers, of procedures for providing materials in other places, of the provisions of the laws of the state, of the amount of materials that would be needed annually with an estimate of the cost, and of what other districts in the state are doing. He will then bring the results of his studies to the attention of the board in support of a recommendation that it adopt the policy of providing materials without cost to students.

Another superintendent will handle the same problem in a different manner. He will summarize the existing studies of what it costs to attend school in many places. He will get competent legal opinion about the possibility of spending tax money for materials. Then he will bring the summary to the attention of the board of education, asking them if they might be interested in looking into the situation in the local schools. Being aware of the educational implications of the cost of materials, he will press them to examine all the facts. Through discussion he will seek to draw from them the major problems on which they would like further information. He will make suggestions of problems, if such are needed, but only after it is clear that no one on the board will do so."

After all problems and questions are drawn out, he will offer to secure needed information in areas where professional competence is necessary and to assist the board in getting information in areas where professional competence is not necessary. It might be that all the questions raised by the board would require professional skill in answering. If this were so, the superintendent would do all the work. It might be that the answers to some questions could be found readily by members of the board, in which case each board member might have some work to do. Usually both types of questions are raised. All individuals involved will present their findings at meetings of the board, where they will be discussed until they are understood thoroughly. At the appropriate time, if no member of the board had already done so, the superintendent will state that a policy is needed in respect to the provision of materials. The board and the superintendent together will draw up a statement, which will be adopted.

In some school systems policy is made by the board of education without consulting the superintendent of schools. Some member of the board suggests that there be a new policy about materials in the schools. He suggests a policy, or suggests that there be a sub-committee to draw up a

policy. The board listens to him and to the report of its sub-committee and decides what to do. The status leader, the superintendent of schools, plays no part in making the decision about free materials for students.

These three examples illustrate three ways in which the board and the superintendent are related in making policy. In the first instance the superintendent initiates the policy, recommends it, supports it with data, and expects the board to adopt it. In the second case he takes part in the study of the problem along with the members of the board. He adds something that no one else can add, because he is a professionally trained person. Each board member adds what he can. The final policy comes from interaction of the professional status leader with the board over a period of time. In the third case the board acts by itself. In all three cases the final statement of policy might well be the same. The difference is in the procedure by which the result is achieved. In the first case the status leader does nearly all the thinking, outlines the major aspects of the problem, investigates them, reports his findings with a recommendation, and requests the board to approve the policy he recommends. In the second case the status leader is a genuine participant with the members of the board, and the decision is arrived at jointly, each person contributing out of his own store of competence. In the third case the status leader has no share in policy-making.

Nearly every student of school administration agrees that a board of education should not make decisions without first securing the recommendations, with substantiating data, of the professional educator directly responsible to it. Many experts in school administration believe that the superintendent should initiate policy and that the board, after becoming familiar with his recommendations and his reasons for making them, should either approve or disapprove them. A small, though growing, body of scholars in the field is pointing out that there are great values in the competencies of members of boards of education, that these competencies are as important as the professional competence of the status leader, and that the best policy results when board members and superintendent alike participate fully in all stages of the formulation of policy. This is the point of view of the authors of this volume. They believe that the results achieved in those school systems where board and superintendent share in all steps in making policy demonstrate fully that this way produces the best education for children. And if it does this, it is the best way for any school system.

The Status Leader at Work with the Staff

The work of any status leader is directed mainly toward the continuous improvement of the educational program. Leadership, if it is to be effective in enriching the lives of all who come in contact with the school system, must have a keen sense of the direction of the good, the true, the just, the beautiful, the right, and must be able to encourage the development of this same sense of direction in others. This is particularly true as the leader works with the staff of the schools. Unless leader and staff can come to general agreement about the ends of education, there is little hope for their working together to improve the schools.

Any systems of organization must be established within a prior understanding of the ends of education or must facilitate such an understanding. But people understand best those ideas, principles, and policies they have helped establish. And the purposes of education mean little unless they are expressed in terms of action and result in action. So, if a system of organization is to help promote the improvement of education, it must be one that enables the largest number of persons to share in the determination of purposes and, more particularly, in the determination of policies out of which will come the action by which the purposes are reached. Participation is the key to getting better understanding and so to getting better schools.

Principles for Organizing a School System to Ensure Maximum Staff Participation in Making Policy

1. Whenever policy of any type is under consideration, *those who might be affected by the policy should share in the determination of its nature.* This principle is easy to state but difficult to interpret in action. If, for example, the question of providing free materials for students arises, who are the persons within the staff who might be affected by policy decisions? Every teacher will be affected, for his teaching will be influenced by the extent to which there is an abundant supply of free material. Every principal will be affected, for he will be required to adopt new procedures for storing, issuing, and requisitioning supplies. Every supervisor will be affected as he attempts to get better methods of using a

larger supply of needed material. The business department will be affected as it sets up procedures for the purchase of more varied material in larger quantities, stores it, and delivers it to the schools. Custodians will be affected as larger amounts of consumable materials go into the classrooms to be dropped on the floors or put into waste containers. New kinds of records must be kept and more entries made in former records. In short, it would be difficult to find any employee of the schools from whom there could not be drawn a thread of involvement, even though some of the relationships would be much more tenuous than others. Who, then, should be the participants in the consideration of any policy?

The answer is found in the purposes of the school system, and in the relation of various employees to it. Whether or not to provide material without cost to all students is, first of all, an educational question. If ~~such~~ a policy would not improve education, then it should not be advocated. If it does improve education, and it is felt by the total community to be worth the cost, then the problems of purchasing, storing, delivery, requisitioning, record keeping, and custodial care must be solved. Those who will be involved in the clearly educational aspects of the problem should participate in establishing policy in respect to it. Those concerned with the execution of policy will participate in setting up the procedures by which it is put into action. This leads to the second principle.

2. Those changes in policy that affect the education program directly should arise out of the participation of professional educators. Those procedures necessary to execute these policies should arise out of participation by those who must use them. This principle leads to two systems of organization: one for establishing policy and the other for executing it. Further principles will deal only with the first system of organization.

Participation is a time-consuming process. Men do not develop new ideas without considerable effort. When they meet together in groups to deliberate, time is used in becoming acquainted, in understanding each other's points of view, in evaluating the worth of each other's suggestions, and in other aspects of the group process. The ultimate results of participation are well worth the time spent on it, but not if this time is added to that demanded by other work of the employee.

Far too frequently, participation is viewed as a privilege extended to teachers and others on the staff, with the result that they are expected to carry it on over and above their other duties. When this happens, not only does the overworked teacher find it necessary to slight some part of his

work in order to get everything done within a reasonable time, but he also develops attitudes of dislike toward participating. Participation becomes an extra burden handed down by the administration. Instead of helping to build good morale, as it should, it becomes a factor in lowering morale. This consideration leads to the third principle.

3. *Participation by employees in establishing policy or in setting up procedures for executing policy should be considered part of the work load and should be carried on during regular working hours.* Even when adequate time, as part of working hours, is allowed for participation, there will not be much increase in morale nor great improvement in the educational program or the procedures for implementing policy if all suggestions of problems to be studied come from a status leader. The personnel of any school system is rich in training and experience. In it are many persons aware of unsolved problems that have not yet come to the attention of the status leader. Many of these problems are important, and their solution will improve the system markedly. In addition, because of the nature of their work, the impact of particular problems on the staff is different from the impact of the same problems on the leader. Some problems that appear urgent to the leader may appear unimportant to the staff, and vice versa. The staff must feel free to suggest changes in priority—changes important to the staff because of the way in which the staff is affected by what remains undone. Unless the organization allows each member of the group to present his own ideas about what problems should be studied or what policies are needed, there will be little genuine participation, on the one hand, and little utilization of the human resources of the school system, on the other.

4. The fourth principle underlying a good organization to insure maximum participation of the staff in policy-making can be stated in the following way: *Participation must always include the initiation by any member of the group of problems to be studied and of policies to be made.* After the above principle is recognized and put into use, further questions remain to be answered. The status leader has power and authority. He is responsible to the board that employs him, or, if he is not the superintendent of schools, to some higher officer in the school system. He is given authority to get things done. He is expected to produce a better school system. What shall he do if he is working with a group of the staff and individual members suggest problems on policies which he thinks are valueless? Or, in an even more difficult situation, what shall he do if the

suggestions seem to him to be harmful to the schools? Or perhaps the suggested problems are good, but the solutions proposed for them may appear bad to him, or he may know of better solutions. Shall he allow the group to use solutions that are bad or that are not the best?

On the other hand, the problem of the group in relation to the authority of the leader must be considered. What will be the effect on them if he tells them that there are some ideas they cannot explore, some problems they must not touch, some solutions they must not propose? It is clear to anyone who has worked with groups that arbitrary use of power to direct or restrict the action of the group is undesirable. It reduces the extent of participation, lowers morale, and prevents the effective use of the staff. The dilemma can be resolved by the fifth principle.

5. *The scope of the area in which the staff is to participate should be established by policy statements that have arisen from unlimited participation by the staff.* Limits will usually include those set by laws of the state. Additional ones will develop slowly, and to a very limited maximum extent. As the staff has experience in working together, it comes to realize what limits are appropriate for the particular school system in which it functions. In general, the wise leader is little concerned about when and where to use his authority. He seeks to expand the area of group action, rather than to restrict it.

As a group studies problems and proposes solutions to them, as it examines and proposes policy for the schools, it will find that authority is needed if new solutions and new policies are to be put into effect. Usually it secures the authority by channeling its proposals through the superintendent of schools to the board of education. When new policies are enacted, the superintendent is charged with responsibility for putting them into operation. This is the most desirable procedure. It is official. It is a matter of public record. It provides an opportunity for all to be heard when the proposal is before the board. It uses existing lines of authority and channels of communication.

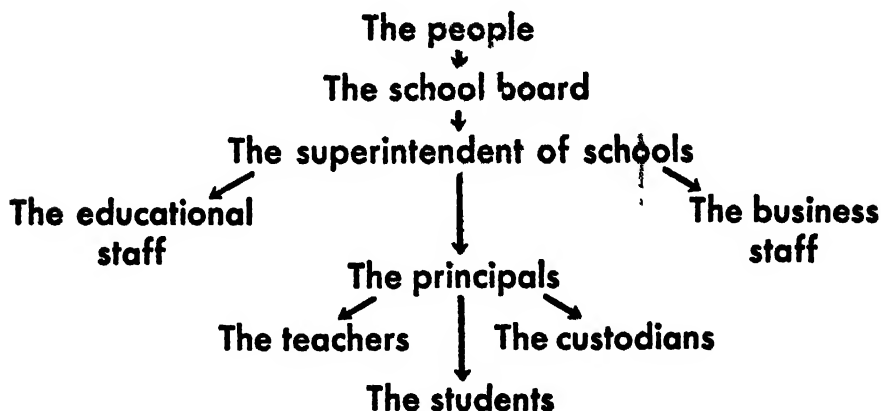
There is one danger in it, which must be taken into account. Whenever a group uses the authority of another agency to get action, it tends to place responsibility for the success or failure of the action upon the agency with power. The policy in respect to providing free materials to students may have arisen out of careful consideration by the staff and have been recommended by them to the board of education. It may have been adopted by the board and put into use. But because of lack of funds,

shortage of supplies, or some other reason, it may not have worked well in practice. Far too frequently in this situation the staff will blame the board of education or the status leader. The staff is reluctant to accept responsibility for the success or failure of its own ideas.

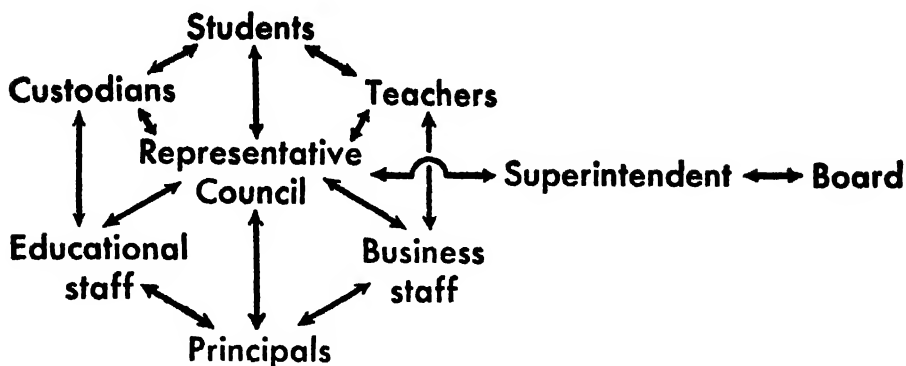
This reluctance can be overcome if the organization for participation in establishing policy is such that there is continuous review and evaluation of the results of proposals that have been put into action. Under these conditions the group will tend to accept responsibility for its actions. Taking the blame for a mistake is not pleasant, and people learn to do it only after much practice. No system of organization will make this activity completely enjoyable; this is too much to expect. But it is possible to have an organization that will make it necessary for the staff to practice accepting responsibility for its own errors. Thus we arrive at principle six.

6. *The staff should participate in reviewing and evaluating the results of policy it has proposed so that it may learn to accept responsibility for its mistakes.*

The status leader should recommend that the board which employs him establish a system of organization based on these six principles. This organization will be intended to produce recommendations of policy and solutions of problems. These recommendations will have arisen through participation of those who will be affected most by the new proposals. The organization will also be intended to develop the best procedures for getting policies into action in such ways that the schools are improved. A simple chart showing a plan of organization for the execution of policy is given here.



A simple chart showing a system of organization for establishing policy within a school system is given here.



There are at least two general types of problems existing in any school system. First are those that fall in the general category of improving the educational programs or the operating procedures of the school. Here will be found attempts to get answers to questions of scope and sequence in the curriculum, of problem-centered versus child-centered versus subject-centered methods of teaching, of the selection of materials of instruction, of the choice among systems of machine accounting, and the like. These have a very real effect upon the work of employees; they also have sufficient professional connotations to bring them clearly within the joint province of the status leaders and those for whose work the leaders are responsible. These individuals will find a large area of common agreement about the ways in which these problems should be solved.

Second are those problems that directly affect the economic condition of the working conditions of employees. Questions about rates of pay, hours of work, and the like, are ones in which the attitudes and interests of status leaders and of those who work under their direction are frequently different. The superintendent of schools, for example, is expected by most boards of education to represent their point of view in negotiating with teachers. Teachers, on the other hand, may look to him for support in their demands. He, as a professional student of salary scheduling and finance, may have a set of ideas of his own about the problem.

Frequently, systems of organization set up to insure the participation of the staff of the schools in developing educational or operational policies and procedures are used to settle disputes about wages and hours and

working conditions. This is extremely unwise. The organization most effective in creating participation in the solution of problems in the category of improving educational programs is not always a usable pattern of organization for the solution of those problems directly affecting the economic condition or working conditions of employees. The first part of this chapter deals with theory that underlies participation in policy-making. Policies may affect the solution of problems in both categories. The procedures just recommended should lead to the establishment of wise policies about methods of solving problems of both types. Throughout Part Two of this book attention was given to patterns of procedure suitable to participation in the solution of problems of the first category. The discussion to follow suggests organized procedure for dealing with problems of the second category.

The Use of Collective Bargaining in Improving the Pay and Working Conditions of the Staff

For years there has been growing recognition that the worker has the right to propose what he believes to be an adequate rate of pay for his services and to bargain collectively in order to secure what he thinks is his due. Not only are rates of pay subject to collective bargaining, but so are hours of work, pensions, grievance procedures, procedures for promotion, and nearly every other factor which might affect income or the lot of the worker while earning his income. Public education has been unduly tardy in admitting that the people who work in the schools have the same right to bargain collectively as do the people in any other line of work. The value of participation in areas of professional concern has been recognized. There should also be participation in areas of common personal problems of the professional personnel. Tardiness in this second kind of participation has done much to hinder progress in both areas.

The manner in which school systems may organize for more effective participation in the area of common personal problems is described by one of the authors of this book in the following extract from *Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration*.¹

¹ The discussion from this point to the end of page 546 is quoted from Willard B. Spalding, "Organizing the Personnel of a Democratic School System," in National Society for the Study of Education, Forty-fifth Yearbook, Part II, *Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration* (University of Chicago Press, 1946), pp. 67-77. Quoted by Permission of the Society.

Organizing the Personnel toward Better Relationship with the Administrative Staff

a) The Principle of Collective Bargaining. School systems throughout the country have not kept abreast of the progress which has been made in methods of collective bargaining in business and industry. A revolution of major proportions is taking place in this field, the implications of which are of great importance in any area where employee-management relationships exist.

The relationships between employees and management are best when each group understands its duties, its rights, and its responsibilities and is conscientiously endeavoring to act in accordance with them. In many areas there appear to be conflicting interests between workers and those who oversee their work. In industry these conflicts are usually resolved by continuous effort to seek agreement. This can happen because the employees are organized strongly and can bargain collectively. When joint efforts to reach agreement fail, some provision is made to settle the dispute by arbitration.

In school systems the personnel who correspond to the worker group in industry are not as a rule well organized. They do not usually bargain collectively because they do not feel themselves strong enough to demand that right. The administrative staffs of some school systems oppose the establishment of any stronger, more universal type of organization; or, if they do encourage it, develop plans of organization which resemble closely the company union in the industrial field. Such organizations do not help their members to learn how to accept responsibility democratically. The administration deals continually with individuals rather than with organizations, which tends to prevent the organizations from becoming strong. When areas of conflict are generated, we find that teachers have no sense of unity; and, when agreements are made, it frequently appears that they have not learned to accept the responsibility of utilizing them to the fullest extent.

Much of the weakness found in organizations of employees, and particularly in those which are made up of teachers, centers around the curiously unrelated ideas which are called "professional." Because teaching is so labeled, teachers are expected to accept extra duties without extra pay, such as coaching, serving on curriculum committees, attending faculty

meetings, acting as sponsors of extra-curriculum activities, and the many tasks which are over and above the duties of the classroom. Because teachers are members of a profession, they are supposed to seek better pay and better working conditions only by making polite representations to the administrative staff and through them to the board, rather than by simple and direct request to the employing group for these betterments because they have a basic and demonstrable right to them. Because schools are operated to help boys and girls for the public good, the teachers who work in these schools are continually reminded of the fact that children come first and that it is unprofessional to do anything which might be interpreted as meaning anything else. These ideas are hokum of the rankest kind. Teachers are skilled employees working in the public interest. So are the electricians and engineers on the public payroll. What is true of one is just as true of the other.

The persistence of this moralizing has been one of the greatest factors in the continuance of low-level standards of pay and tenure imposed upon teachers by the employing public. The issue needs to be clarified. Even from the standpoint of the moralizers, the argument of subordinating the teacher's welfare to the asserted interests of the child is none too valid. Overworked and underpaid persons cannot render the type of service which the youth of this country need. The public interest is not served best by teachers or other school workers who are discouraged whenever they make feeble attempts to better their lot by organized effort. The extra duties which fall continually on teachers are not carried out efficiently when they result in no other reward to the teachers than increased fatigue and frustration. Schools will become better, boys and girls will be served better, when the label of "unprofessional" is removed from organized or individual attempts to improve the teacher's living and working conditions.

Many of the arguments which are presented to defend the many inequities and injustices which exist are similar to those which industrialists used in the last century in order to justify low pay, long hours, and bad working conditions. Their contention that any change would be harmful to the public interest has been refuted by the results of better pay, better working conditions, and shorter hours. Production has been increased and the prosperity of the country has grown until now the same industrialists boast of America as a country with the highest standards of living in the world. These gains have resulted from decades of effort by organized employees. The same gains could be made in education by the same forces.

It is true that in many ways education is a profession and, as such, has its professional problems. These can be solved only as all members of the profession work together to solve them. Organizations whose activities are directed toward these ends should be open to all persons who work in school systems or in schools. But not all problems confronting the teacher are on the plane of educational science. Some of them affect the teacher as a worker and an employee. Organizations which are created by teachers as working employees seeking to better the pay, the hours, and the working conditions of their members should be open only to teachers. Management, the administrative staff of the schools, has no place in such groups.

The existence of strongly organized, vigorously active organizations of teachers, of custodians, of clerical employees, and the like, is a fundamental prerequisite of any sound program for the improvement of morale, for the redress of grievances, or for the bettering of any other aspect of employee-management relations. For that reason the administrative staff should encourage their growth not only for the sake of the individuals but also as an essential part of the improvement of the school system.

In setting up the *modus operandi* of collective bargaining, the teachers, custodians, secretaries, and other similar groups should each be expected to select one organization, if they belong to several, to represent them in collective bargaining. The selection of a single organization is necessary because the administrative staff cannot expect all the employees of any one type to be bound by several agencies. If there is any question as to the proper bargaining agent for any group, all the workers in a given category may petition for an election to determine the agency they wish to represent them. If none receives a majority of the votes, then a run-off election between the two receiving the largest number of votes should be held. The organization finally receiving the majority of votes is the recognized agent in bargaining until the next election is held. This is done only after a specified period of time when another petition is received. If no request is made for a new agent, the original choice continues indefinitely.

After the bargaining agent has been selected, its first duty is to negotiate an agreement with the employing board. Both parties should seek to reach a common understanding. In the event the attempt fails, a procedure for arbitration should be agreed upon. This should occur only on rare occasions. The board should then appoint a representative from the administrative staff as its arbiter. The employees' organization should appoint a similar representative from its membership. The two persons should

then select a third arbiter. These three make the final decisions and all parties must agree beforehand to abide by their decisions. In those cases where a larger arbitration board seems advisable, and these are few, two or three arbiters may be chosen from each of the three sources. This is usually unwise as the group becomes too large for efficient work.

b) The Nature of the Basic Agreement. The basic agreement between school employees and employer should cover at least the following main items as they apply to particular groups:

Activity of the employees' organization during working hours

Arbitration of disputes

Assignments

Discharge

Duration and renewal of agreement

Enforcement of agreement

Examinations of other types

Hours of work

Improvement of efficiency in the school

Insurance and benefit plans

Lay-offs and re-employment

Leaves of absence of all kinds

Meetings called by employer

Modification during life of agreement

Pay for extra duties

Pay for overtime

Pensions and retirement

Physical examinations

Procedures for handling grievances

Promotion

Rates of base pay

Rest periods

Resignations or quits

Seniority

Substitutes

Sunday and holiday work

Temporary employees

Transfers

Travel pay

Uniforms and equipment

Use of bulletin boards

Vacations

When items such as these are mutually agreed upon, the basis of much misunderstanding and consequent friction disappears. Both the administrative staff and the employees have had a part in arriving at the final agreement. Each understands the problems of the other. Each has a carefully prepared document to which he can refer for the definition of his rights, his duties, and his responsibilities when he is in doubt. In the absence of such an agreement, staff and employees' relations are characterized by uncertainty, lack of uniformity, arbitrary action, and much unnecessary ill-will.

A strong organization of employees will make it necessary for the administrative staff to face the difficult problem of negotiating the many items which enter into an agreement. This is an activity which few persons who are on the administrative staffs of city schools systems have faced. Many may be reluctant to face it. When it is done, finally accepted by both sides, and carried out in good faith, it offers respite from the petty troubles and complaints which otherwise arise continually. In the end it will mean less total work and effort than if separate and protracted conferences and struggles were necessary over each new controversy. An agreement is in operation over a period of time, and during that time the road is clear for other constructive tasks.

c) The Redress of Grievances. Those grievances which arise wherever large numbers of persons are employed can be dealt with best under the provisions of an agreement arrived at through collective bargaining. If this does not exist, and it usually does not, then some plan of organization should be set up for the redress of just grievances. This is absolutely necessary if relationships are to improve and harmony is to be restored. A study of the nature and type of the special grievances which affect school personnel is necessary before any plan is evolved.

"A grievance may arise from any number of causes adversely affecting the mental attitude of the worker toward his job. The cause may be real or imaginary. But even an imaginary cause may point to some real source of dissatisfaction. For example, complicated rules and regulations which are not sufficiently explained may lead a worker to think he is being treated unfairly. Getting at the underlying conditions which give rise to the grievances is essential to good grievance procedure." *

* "Settling Plant Grievances," *Collective Bargaining*. United States Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, Bulletin No. 60. (Government Printing Office, 1943.)

Typical Examples of the Grievances of Employees in City School Systems

<i>Type of Grievance</i>	<i>Usual Cause</i>
A. The activities of principals and supervisors	The employee feels that:
1. Complaints about enforcements of rules	Principal or supervisor does not like him and picks on him. Principal or supervisor did not explain clearly what was expected. Principal or supervisor will not listen to any point of view but his own.
2. Objection to a particular principal or supervisor	The principal or supervisor favors some person above others. The principal or supervisor is rude and arbitrary and discourteous. The principal or supervisor ignores complaints.
3. Objections to methods of supervisors or of rating employees .	The principal or supervisor has filed a rating sheet on the basis of no or few observations of the employee at work. The principal attempts to judge the work from the comments of pupils and parents. He never gets but one side of the story. The principal or supervisor is always finding fault and never says a word of praise.
B. Salaries and salary schedules	
1. Demand for change in rate of pay for an individual employee	Other people with the same experience and training are getting more money. The method which is used in placing him on scale is improper. New employees get better salaries than he did when he began.
2. Complaints about the schedule	Too much emphasis is placed on degrees and too little on good work. A teacher is so busy getting more training that he does not have time to teach well and to relax.

C. General working conditions

1. Faculty meetings

The principal talks too much.

The material which is presented could be mimeographed and read. There is no need for the meeting.

The meetings are too long.

Teachers are compelled to pay for food at these meetings.

2. Sanitary conditions

There are insufficient toilets for the employees.

There is not time enough for attention to personal needs.

3. Duties outside of the classroom

Extra duties are distributed unfairly.

Coaches are paid extra sums while persons who carry on as difficult tasks are not.

4. Pressure to join organizations

There are too many meetings.

The principal insists on 100 per cent membership in the N.E.A.

Everyone is made to join the local building association and to pay dues.

Grievances are not confined to complaints against the decisions or practices of the employer. The administrative staff and the principals may also have grievances about the practices and competences of the employees. A good procedure for handling grievances works in both directions. Whenever there are conditions which tend to create conflicts between those who administer schools and subordinate members of the staff, there is need for a definite plan of organization by which these can be remedied.

Typical Examples of the Grievances of the Administrative Staff

Type of Grievance

Common Cause

The administrator thinks that:

A. Dissatisfaction with an individual employee

The employee is continually breaking rules.

The employee will not do as he is told. The employee is absent from work too frequently.

The employee arrives late and leaves early.

The employee does not seek to improve continuously.

The employee resists changes in methods of work.

The employee will not carry on extra duties.

The employee is a troublemaker in the group.

The employee is harsh and unreasonable with pupils.

The employee is discourteous to parents.

B. Dissatisfaction with organization of employees

The organization never seeks to improve the schools.

The organization has poor leadership.

The organization is always bringing faults to the attention of the staff. It never makes constructive proposals.

The organization misrepresents the attitude of the staff toward its members.

The organization does not stick to an agreement and does not attempt to keep its members in line.

The organization encourages complaints by presenting them without prior investigation.

Irresponsible statements are made in publications of the organization.

If consistent decisions about grievances such as have been presented in the two lists above are to be made, then there must be a continuing group to make them. Such a group should work systematically and with business efficiency. To this end, written records of previous decisions are essential. A formal and standard procedure is desirable because:

1. It insures the use of established precedents and so reduces the number of conflicting decisions.
2. It makes certain that decisions are made by those who have the authority to make them.
3. It reduces the number of petty and unnecessary complaints.
4. It insures the use of the same facts by both parties involved in any grievance.

5. It is impartial and impersonal.
6. It is readily understood by all parties.

A good formal grievance procedure will meet all of these objectives. It will, in the long run, produce a high level of morale and better relations between employees and administrators. It would be wise to have such a procedure evolve out of coöperative planning by the interested parties. In the absence of a strong organization of employees, the administrative staff will need to find some way in which to select or to guide the selection of the persons who are to do this planning. Care must be taken that those chosen, whatever method is used, are actually representative of the employees. This is not easy where employees are knit together loosely. School systems, when there is no collective bargaining, will encourage the setting up of councils, conferences, assemblies, and the like, which are recognized as the official voice of the employees. Some of these groups are made up of representatives of existing agencies or organizations. Some are made up of persons who are selected by secret ballot of all employees for the purpose of representation. Some are constituted of persons selected by the administrative staff. Once organized, the group usually selects its own leadership or, if relations are cordial enough, the superintendent acts as chairman. The closer the leadership and the membership of this representative council are to the employees, the better.

The council should not by itself settle grievances. It should merely develop a plan for handling them which both sides will accept. Such a plan should be orderly in form. It should be operated smoothly. It should be administered wisely. Here is an example of such a plan which appears to be both practical and just.

Grievances arise on every job. If it is a school job, the responsibility for handling "gripes" as they arise naturally falls on the shoulders of the immediate supervisor of the employee, usually the principal of the school. The efficient principal will encourage his subordinates to take their grievances directly to him, and as quickly as possible. Most of them can be handled very easily, if they are not allowed to grow and fester. It may also be desirable that the employee have the support and assistance of a fellow worker. Many people are too introverted to reveal their complaint and argue it through. The central council should request each group of employees at a school to select someone to act with the aggrieved person. If there are but few employees of a single type at the school, such as custodians or secretaries, the system-wide organization of such employees should

designate some one person to act with the aggrieved employee. The use of this other person is at the discretion of the one who is making the complaint. If he does not wish assistance, he acts alone.

The first step in the handling of a grievance, then, is that of presenting it to the principal. This presentation should be an oral one. The principal should be expected to handle most of these complaints fairly and to give redress when such is needed.

No one in the school system is more important to good relations between the administration and the corps than the principal. He interprets the policies of the system to his co-workers in his building. He is, in effect, the school system in his relations with those who work in his school. He must have authority to settle grievances, if the first step toward that result is to carry weight. His decisions, of course, should be subject to appeal and the machinery of appeal should be uncomplicated and rapid in action, but, on the spot, he should be able to act as an executive.

The representative of the employees within the school or in the entire organization of employees should have authority from them similar to that which the principal has from the board. He should make sure that all of the facts are presented in each case. He should, in the case of an existing agreement, live up to it in all his acts. When he confers with the principal, he is firm, courteous, and businesslike. He is not merely an advocate; he is also a co-operator. He strives to make sure that each grievance is settled on its merits. He follows grievances through the appeal machinery if they have arisen within his jurisdiction. He keeps himself informed about principles and established precedents so that he may guide those he represents whenever grievances arise in the future.

All grievances and complaints which are not settled by mutual agreement between principal and employee should be placed in writing. For this, a suitable printed form should be used which both sides have helped to construct. The written grievance should be filed with the administrative staff within a specified period of time, dating from the occurrence which caused the employee to be aggrieved. A copy of this should also go to the central grievance committee or a sub-committee of the central council of employees if collective bargaining has not taken place. If there is an organization of employees which has been selected for collective bargaining, a copy goes to their grievance committee, which takes the place of any subcommittee of a council.

The grievance committee and the administrative staff investigate the grievance and seek additional facts independently of each other. The committee gets its facts from the report, the school representative, and the aggrieved employee. The staff gets its facts from the principal. If the grievance committee, after its investigation of the matter, is convinced that the original decision of the principal was correct, it should so state, notifying both the staff and the employee that it will not seek to further the appeal. If the administrative staff is convinced that the principal was in error and that the employee was right, then it should so state and give relief without further delay. If neither of these conditions prevails, then the staff and the grievance committee should confer and attempt to adjust the matter. Each should seek to dispose of the matter at this conference if it is at all possible to do so.

Where this is not possible, the appeal should go to a final board of arbitration. This board should be made up of the head of the organization of employees, the superintendent, and a third party chosen by them. The decision of this board should be final. When the appeal is sent to this board it should be accompanied by all records of previous discussions and action. The aggrieved employee should have the right to present his case if he wishes to do so, either to the conference of the grievance committee and the staff or to the final board of arbitration.

Settling grievances is a normal part of the activity of any school system. The costs of doing so are a legitimate charge against any budget. Employees and representatives of employees should be able to carry out their responsibilities in this respect on time for which they are paid. They should not be expected to present or consider appeals at odd and inconvenient hours.

The administrative staff also has grievances. When it has a grievance against the employees as a whole, the procedure begins at step two, the conference between the grievance committee and the staff. The appeal procedure goes on from there.

When the grievance is against an individual employee, two procedures can be followed. The principal or some member of the staff may reprimand the subordinate, correct his error, and seek to guide him into better ways. If the employee feels that this action is unjust, he proceeds as he would with any other grievance. A second procedure is that of a conference between the staff, or a member of the staff, and the grievance committee. The

reasons for the grievance are presented, the committee then investigates them, confers with the employee, and, if it is convinced that the complaint against him is sound, reprimands, corrects, and helps him to avoid similar errors in the future. If it is convinced that the complaint is unwarranted, it so reports to the administrative staff. If the latter disapproves of the verdict, it may appeal to the board of arbitration.

Outline of a Grievance Procedure

Step 1: Aggrieved employee and representative attempt to settle with the principal. If this fails, the grievance is written and submitted to

Step 2: Grievance committee, which attempts to settle with the administrative staff. If this fails, the grievance and accompanying records are sent to

Step 3: Arbitration committee (head of employees, superintendent of schools, and third arbiter) for final settlement.

Such a procedure in handling grievances is democratic. It places responsibility for adjustment on employees as well as on the administrative staff. It is simple in structure and speedy in operation. It will work well where a central council sponsors and develops it. It will work better when it is incorporated into an agreement between an organization and the employing board which covers grievances, working conditions, and collective bargaining.²

²The extract from National Society for the Study of Education, Forty-fifth Yearbook, Part II, *Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration* (which began on page 535) ends here.

The Status Leader at Work with Students

The principal is the status leader closest to the students. He meets them daily in the corridors, classrooms, playgrounds, and offices of the school. He knows their strengths and their weaknesses. He can see them grow in wisdom and understanding as they grow in stature and strength. In the high school he can see them begin to grapple seriously with some of the problems of adults and with additional problems that arise from the process of becoming an adult. He, more than anyone else, should be endeavoring constantly to bring the policies and procedures of the school system into line with the best interests of students in their total living. As he does this he brings proposals to the superintendent, to the central committee on curriculum improvement, or to any other appropriate place.

The superintendent must usually rely on others for information about the actual needs of students, but he can encourage the establishment of procedures which will get these needs out into the open where they can be examined and plans made to meet them. One of the best ways to do this is to have some of the information come directly from students.

Student Participation in Determination of Policy

The central committee which guides the development of the curriculum of the schools should have student membership. It is not necessary to go into all the reasons for this; suffice it to state that it is the surest and best way to get due consideration for the opinions of students.

The selection of the students for such a committee is a very difficult and complicated procedure in any large school system. Not many students know as many as a quarter of all other students. It is difficult for them to choose wisely among schoolmates. One device is to divide the school district into sub-districts and have a student representative chosen from and by the students in each sub-district. All children in school within each sub-district should vote. In a smaller district the nomination and election procedures used in elections in the community can be used in the schools, all children voting for a specified number of students to represent them on the central committee.

Students should be encouraged to attend meetings of the board of education. Special occasions should be provided when students may present

ideas to the board or acquaint the board with their activities and needs. If, for example, there is a budget for the underwriting of student activities, there should be an open channel of communication so that requests for funds can originate in part from students. They should have the opportunity of discussing their needs with the authorities who have the power to provide for such needs. In general, the six principles that apply to the participation of the staff should be used to determine the participation of students.

The Special Problem of High-School Fraternities and Sororities

Secret fraternities and sororities have been outlawed in many states. In others they have been prohibited by the rules and regulations of school boards. Yet they persist. Many of them have initiation rites degrading to the neophyte and frequently very dangerous. Yet parents continue to allow their children to become initiated, often because they believe that it is socially desirable. There is a curious mixture of aristocratic ambition, desire to be like the others of one's socio-economic level, and pride in the achievement of children which leads parents to allow them to enter an illegal organization.

But these organizations also serve some of the needs of young people. Meeting with a group of friends of your own choosing, selecting who shall become a member of an organization, planning ceremonies of initiation, holding dances, and the like, are all respectable adult activities. No one criticizes them when they are carried on by such organizations as the Masons, Knights of Columbus, and Daughters of the American Revolution. In fact, they are not criticized when they are carried on by organizations like the Hi-Y, Junior Optimist Clubs, or DeMolay. Activities of these youth organizations are recognized as desirable parts of growing up in the United States.

What, then, is the difference? In the first place, high-school fraternities and sororities were established to ape those in colleges. They tended to copy the worst activities of these collegiate organizations and have retained them long after they were abandoned in college. The paddling of high-school students by their fellows is often ferocious and uncontrolled. Initiates are subjected to other physical indignities which are not now and may never have been part of initiation in college. In the second place, these organizations in high school have no adult sponsorship and little adult

supervision. It is quite common for a member of a sorority to inform her parents that there will be a meeting in the house that evening and that they are not to be present. In the third place, these organizations have no worthwhile purpose generally recognized by the members. They have nothing to work for. The absence of accepted purposes leads rather generally to the deterioration of any group. This deterioration takes place more rapidly with immature students than with adults. Fourth, the illegal or disapproved character of the organizations makes them attractive to the type of personality that enjoys the feeling of danger that goes with membership. This tends to draw into the organization a relatively larger percentage of people who will participate in unattractive initiations than would be found in the high-school population as a whole.

The wise administrator will recognize that abolishing these organizations by law or fiat will not eliminate them. The needs they fill, and which ought to be filled, must be met, or new organizations will arise to take the place of those that have been ferreted out. There is need for invention to develop enough of the right kinds of organizations for young people. And in this inventing the high-school student can play a very real part. If the organization for securing the participation of students operates on an effective basis, it can be expected to study the problem and find good solutions to it. Elimination of the obnoxious and creation of the good organizations should go hand in hand.

The Special Problem of Interscholastic Athletics and Other Contests

People like to watch competition on an organized basis. The almost astronomical attendance at athletic events is clear evidence that observing trained persons compete is firmly fixed in the mores of the United States. And competition is part of playing the game. Winning is part of the reason for the game. No one who plays golf, cards, bowling, or any other of the common games of adults does so without trying to win most of the time. High schools should do what they can to help all students acquire enough skill in enough games for them to be able to take part in the competitive games that are part of adult recreation.

The difficulty with interscholastic athletics is not that there is too much of this activity in secondary education, but that there is too little. Where there is great emphasis on football, high-school teams draw large crowds; high-school bands play and march; high-school students cheer and lead

cheers; and all enjoy a fine spectacle. True, there is occasional gambling among some people, but this is not due to interscholastic competition. Gambling has continued through the whole history of man, having started long before there were high schools. What is wrong is that the money spent for coaches, equipment, and transportation affects those students who least need to be affected. It is necessary to be in excellent physical condition, to be well coordinated, and to be a good athlete in order to be coached in football in most schools. This is not a prudent expenditure of limited funds. If there is a small amount of money available for teaching football, it had best be spent on those who need most to develop. But this would be absurd in view of the mores about competitive sports. The better answer, and one which a small number of schools are beginning to use, is to provide equipment, coaches, and interscholastic competition for any student who wishes to play. True, the crowds will follow the first team. It will have much of the glamor, but there can be bands and cheering sections at other games.

Such a procedure can be followed only where the school board recognizes that athletics is part of the educational program. Such recognition means the elimination of so-called high-school athletic associations which pocket the funds from games and use them to purchase equipment. It means that the income from games becomes part of the income of the school district. Appropriations are made for the salaries of coaches and for equipment as they are made for the salaries and equipment of other teachers. The board adopts the policy of providing enough coaches for every student to take part in a sport each season of the year.

There are many opportunities for students to take part in worth-while activities which can be developed as part of a program of universal interscholastic athletics. Schedules of games must be made. Arrangements for getting equipment to and from the athletic field or gymnasium are necessary. Cheer leaders must be selected. The student body must be informed of impending contests. These and many other functions like them can be performed by students. Setting up a student organization which can study, manage, and improve student participation in athletics is an excellent forward step. Occasionally, using existing student government for this purpose is desirable. In any event, the six principles of participation mentioned earlier (pages 528-534) should be followed here.

Contests in dramatics, oral interpretation, band playing, singing, and

the like, are subject to the same basic criticism as athletics. The funds of the school system are spent in training those who least need training. It is not that competition is bad, but that it is not extended, with some chance of winning, to every pupil who wishes to have the opportunity to compete. There should be more rather than fewer of these activities.

In athletics, as in other contests, the administrator should work toward a prudent expenditure of money. If there is but little available, and there appears to be slight chance of getting more, then he should plan ways of spending what there is in order to help the largest number of students. Plans of this nature will be difficult to develop without the full understanding and coöperation of the staff, the students, and the board. It will be essential that the community be informed at every step and have an opportunity to express itself. The idea that there is value to the school in a team of experts who can be cheered and watched should not be discarded lightly. The feeling of being part of a worth-while group is an important one to an adolescent. If *his* band, *his* team, *his* glee club, *his* debating team is there in competition with another, he can identify himself with it and with the group that supports it.

The Status Leader at Work as a Member of the Organized Profession

The number of professional education organizations is great, and the individual incomes of members of the profession are small. It is necessary for each status leader to consider carefully the organizations through which, on the one hand, he can contribute most to the profession and, on the other hand, gain most to help himself improve. Usually the same organization will serve both functions well if it serves either well. He can then pay dues where they will do the most good.

Professional education organizations fall into three different categories: First, the organizations that seek to improve education as a whole and that are open to persons who work in any kind of educational position. Second, the organizations interested in the development or improvement of the curriculum in general, or of a subject-matter field, or concerned with a particular group of children. Third, the organizations open to persons employed in a particular kind of educational work. These divisions are

not mutually exclusive. Any one type of organization may deal with the same problems dealt with by the others, particularly when these are related to what appears to be for the good of education as a whole. The degree of overlapping is large, for there are over five hundred organizations of regional or national scope listed in the Educational Directory published by the United States Office of Education. Obviously many of them must serve some of the same purposes.

The status leader should select from among this large number those that will be most helpful to him. He should be a member of at least one national organization of each of the three types. He should be a member of state organizations of these three types. He should be a member of a local professional organization, provided such organization is not concerned with bettering the pay and working conditions of the classroom teacher through collective bargaining. Typically, a superintendent of schools is a member of the National Education Association, the American Association of School Administrators, an organization like the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development or the American Education Fellowship, the state education association, the state association of school administrators, and such others as fit his particular needs, training, experience, and desire.

These organizations hold meetings and conventions from time to time at which important matters are discussed and decisions made which affect the development of education generally. The community cannot afford to have its administrator absent from meetings when these activities are taking place. But national conventions are held in large cities, and the expense of traveling to and attending them is great. Many communities have school boards which believe that it is to the best interests of the schools for the administrator to attend such meetings; therefore, they provide funds for his expenses in doing so. Some communities pay a salary larger than customary in order that the administrator may be able to attend at his own expense. This is really another way for the community to pay expenses. A few communities do not pay expenses in either of the two ways mentioned, while even fewer refuse to allow the administrator to be away from his work in the local community in order to attend at his own expense.

In general, the problem of who should attend conventions with expenses paid should be a matter of policy discussed widely with the staff and the board, and about which people in the community have had an opportunity

to be heard. Frequently, teachers wish to attend conventions of organizations of which they are members, and they do not understand why their expenses should not be paid if it is customary to pay the expenses of administrators. It is difficult to establish a policy fair to all within the available funds of most school districts. If money is available, it would be desirable to pay the expenses of each employee to one national meeting a year. The value in such attendance would be felt soon in the schools as each employee brought back and used the new ideas he had discovered. Other possible plans are to pay the first \$100 or \$50 of the expenses, to pay all expenses for meetings more than a given number of miles away, to pay only railway fare to all meetings, and various combinations of these. In general, wise policy does not treat the status leader any differently than it does a teacher, except where the needs of the schools must be served. If, for example, there is a building program under way, the administrator ought to be sent to meetings dealing with this problem in order that he may find out what the latest developments are. In the absence of pressing needs, such as the one just described, he should have expenses paid to conventions on exactly the same basis as other employees.

Serving as an Officer of a Professional Organization

Educational organizations must have among their members persons able and willing to lead, or they soon become ineffective. Status leaders have been trained as leaders and are employed by school districts to lead the developments of educational programs. They have broad vision of the power and possibilities of the public schools. They are among the group of persons who can and should be willing to serve as officers of professional organizations. And the record shows that they are called upon to do this out of proportion to their numbers in the profession. This is an evidence of the way in which the trained leader usually rises to positions of leadership, even when he has not been employed for that purpose.

When an administrator has been chosen for an office in a professional organization, he should remember that his attendance at meetings and conventions is for the benefit of the organization more than it is for the benefit of the school system that employs him. The organization should pay the traveling expenses of its officers to meetings at which they serve. If the organizations do not do this, the officers should pay their own expenses

rather than expect the school to pay. It is not an appropriate use of public funds to underwrite the operations of a professional organization by paying the traveling expenses of officers.

Service as an officer may call for much time. If this is so, the status leader should secure the permission of the board of education that employs him before he accepts the office. It is wise for the board to anticipate that some of its personnel will be selected from time to time to serve as officers of professional organizations and to establish rules and regulations covering this eventuality. Such regulations should arise through the usual channels for employee participation in the establishment of policy. In general, such a statement of policy should encourage persons to become officers of professional organizations but should discourage their doing so for very many consecutive years if the duties of the office require them to be absent from their work for many days each year.

Keeping the Community Informed about What the Organized Profession is Thinking

If the ideas developed at conventions or in the publications of professional organizations are to have real effect upon the development of education at the local level, they must be widely understood and accepted in each community. Disseminating these ideas, encouraging discussion of them, and securing action in respect to them is part of the task of educational leadership.

There are no quick and simple answers to the question, "How can we get people to think about educational problems?" But there are many partial answers which should be used. The attendance of a member of the staff at a convention can be a news item with which there may be coupled a pertinent idea from the meeting. Press and radio interviews with persons who return from meetings are effective. Discussion with the program chairmen of the PTA or of civic organizations may lead to invitations to discuss the idea. Circulation of the idea in the monthly bulletin to parents will help. Each and all of these devices, plus such others as the administrator can invent, should be used. There is need for creative imagination in solving the problem of getting people to think about education.

The Status Leader at Work with the Community as a Whole

The problems of the schools become the problems of the people only when the people are involved in them and know that they are involved in them. The problem of the status leader in working with the whole community is therefore twofold. First, he must help the citizens become aware of the fact that they are already involved in some problems of the schools. Second, he must seek to get them involved in other problems of the schools and at the same time make them aware of this further involvement.

Speeches

One of the most used and often the most abused means of accomplishing these ends is through speeches. Many organizations in the community are glad to have someone from the schools give a speech at one of their meetings. The membership then sits in sleepy silence until it is time to have refreshments. What has been said may have been of great importance to the public schools, but it was not of importance to people who were just looking for something to fill in a program. The listeners did not become involved in the problems presented.

This does not mean that speeches should be eschewed by the administrator. It does mean that there needs to be a careful plan behind the speaking. There should be a few major speeches each year, and these should be given by persons who can give them well. Frequently these will be teachers. Finding the accomplished speakers in the school system and arranging for them to appear at strategic times before important audiences when there is something important to be said is part of the task. The other part is to arrange for full coverage by newspaper, radio, and television so that the message brought out at the meeting will be spread as widely as possible through the community.

The administrator will find that he must give some speeches; such is expected of superintendents of schools. He should learn to speak well. He may not be able to become a polished orator, but he should get his message across with clarity and vigor, making the audience realize that he believes what he says.

Reports

Another means of getting the public informed and involved is through reports. Each year the school board should render a report of its stewardship of the schools to the people who elected it. This should give a complete accounting of the funds and a complete accounting of the educational program. To do both jobs the report does not need to be technical. It can and should make use of modern techniques of communication through the printed page. Charts, graphs, pictures, and similar devices will tell as much on one page as will several pages of type, and more people will read them. The distribution of the annual report is a proper charge against public funds. It should be mailed to each voter. It is usually helpful to make sure that there are two or three copies where people customarily gather. Barbershops, beauty parlors, and the reception rooms of doctors and dentists make especially good places for leaving copies of the report. Thus some people will read it who would not otherwise see it.

Individual schools should make frequent reports to parents of what the school is doing. If the school uses report cards, a letter to parents can be sent home at the time these go out, and oftener if there is something to be said. If these letters are to be worth-while, they should tell what is important, whether or not it reflects to the credit of the school. The day of thinking of publicity as a program of "selling the schools" is gone. Its purpose is to get intelligent people to think clearly about the problems of public education and to stimulate them to reach the conclusions they believe to be right and for which they will work.

Working with Newspapers

This is a good key to working with the newspapers. Reporters should be encouraged to visit schools at any time and to write about what they see. If they ask for information, they should get it, but no attempt should be made to color their story in favor of the schools. In the long run, many more good stories than poor ones will be in the paper, unless the schools are actually getting poorer. If they are, then the public should know about it. In this respect it is unwise for any speaker from the school to say, at a public meeting, that anything he says is off the record. This may be a device to impress an audience, but it only irritates a reporter. If there is something

about the schools that should be said and not read (and it is difficult to imagine what this might be), then it is best not to say it at all. If it can be said to a hundred people, it can probably be read by a thousand.

Feature stories about children are usually sought by newspapers. If there are programs in schools where attractive pictures can be taken of such activities as making busts in an art class, modeling dresses, constructing intricate laboratory equipment, or dramatizing historical events, the papers should be informed well in advance and encouraged to get full information about the educational program for the story to accompany the picture.

In Chapter 18 many suggestions were made with respect to involvement of the community in study and understanding of the school. In general, the status leader should always remember that it is the public schools that the public must understand and be willing to improve. He must make sure that all publicity is toward this end. It should not be directed toward making any person well known. It should not favor one school over another. It should not favor teachers of one subject over those in other fields. Its emphasis should always be on getting the public to become involved in the problems of the public schools and to be aware of the fact that these problems are their problems.

Suggested Reading

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Group Processes in Supervision*. Begins with a general discussion of the democratic process and democratic schools. Then presents some eighteen different, short papers from professional educators in various fields of education to illustrate the democratic process in action.

I. H. Blumenthal, *Administration of Group Work*. A basic treatment of fundamentals necessary for an understanding of what a group is and how the administration's role is cast and played. Helpful to school administration especially. No index, but a long list of references is a helpful inclusion.

Grace L. Coyle, *Group Experience and Democratic Values*. The author has collected several of her addresses and essays in this book. All of them are stimulating and oriented to basic issues in the area. None of the issues is thoroughly explored, but enough is given to provoke further thought. No index.

J. K. Hemphill, "The Leader and His Group," *Educational Research Bulletin* (December, 1949). A useful, basic article for the reader interested especially in the procedures of leadership.

V. J. Rogers, "Developing Democratic School Leadership," *School Executive* (December, 1949). No. 61 of the "Our Schools" features included regularly in this magazine. May be useful supplementary material for a group to work over in discussion. Brief, but to the point. Most of the points, however, are left under-done.

Learning and Leadership

CHAPTER 23

For many generations man has speculated about how he becomes different as he grows older. The problem puzzled early philosophers as much as it does present day scientists. No one has, as yet, discovered a completely suitable answer, or even evolved a completely satisfactory theory to explain what happens. Both education and leadership are concerned with having man behave differently, which he can do only after he has learned the different acts he is expected to perform. If it is to be effective, any theory of education or of democratic leadership must be based upon an understanding of the process by which man learns. One of the major reasons why education is only partly effective and why leadership goes awry is the absence of a complete and inclusive theory of learning on which the techniques of education and of leadership can be based. And yet man does learn, and is taught.

The Learning Process

There has been continual progress in exploring what is not known about learning. Each year sees new discoveries and new hypotheses. Each year sees some formerly proposed hypotheses proven wrong and some older discoveries eligible for major modification. But there is an increasing residue of knowledge about the process by which man becomes different. This residue should be understood thoroughly by every administrator, for it is an important element in the structure of truths within which he must develop the techniques he will use in working with people.

Learning, as process (rather than as product), is whatever the individual does as he is acquiring a new pattern of behavior, or modifying an old one. This process is not an easy one to describe, largely because it is not completely understood. It is often confused with growth or maturation. It is obvious that some of the ways in which man becomes different are tied up very closely with his physical growth. For example, learning control of the sphincter muscles must wait upon the completion of the growth of those neural connections involved in the voluntary act if the training is to be successful. Similarly, walking, talking, moving the eyes in the way required by reading, must wait upon the maturation of essential elements. In general, those changes that cannot be caused to take place through practice below a certain age level are dependent on maturation. This distinction between growth and learning is not simple, for there are acts observed to occur without practice that cannot be attributed clearly to maturation. And many acts can be learned only after some maturation has occurred. Maturation and learning are inter-twined: the former sets the stage, provides a groundwork of possibilities, while the latter completes the specific patterns. In man, the central nervous system permits the environment to work its effect upon the organism, even as it grows; and adaptation is the more precise, and variable. "Thus growth becomes a pacemaker, the source of capabilities, while learning completes the specific adjustments.

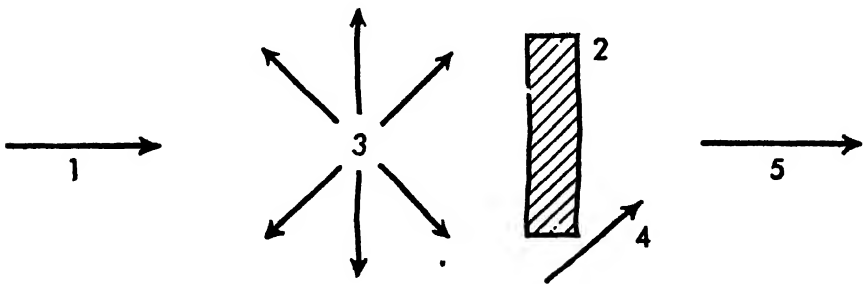
The process of learning may be as simple as conditioning or as complex as problem solving. In conditioning, most, if not all, of the factors are immediate and environmental; in problem solving many of the factors may be remote and symbolic. In the first instance, the repetition of environmental factors is of great importance; in the second instance, repetition of the attempt to solve is of great importance. In most cases of conditioning, the behavior of the learner is almost entirely overt and can be observed readily; in many cases of problem solving much of the behavior of the learner is covert and cannot be observed readily. Conditioning may be considered as the process by which the individual interprets and accepts or has imposed upon him conditions external to himself. In the process of problem solving he interacts with factors external to himself to produce a change in the situation. It is obvious that in the problem-solving situation the individual learner exerts his greatest influence.

Problem solving is the basis of the democratic process, both in its use in governing and as part of a way of life. As people learn to work together to solve the problems which bother them, they create a more satisfying en-

vironment in which to live—one in which there is a significant decrease in the extent to which man is annoyed. So, in a democratic culture, although all learning processes are important, improving the ability of the people to solve problems becomes an especially important goal of education. *To say that in a democratic culture the goal of education is to produce greater ability to solve problems, is the same as saying that in a good educational institution students learn to learn.* And this applies to good leadership as much as to education. Democratic leadership seeks to develop people who will become increasingly better skilled in solving their problems. The democratic leader always seeks to help people become skilled enough to carry on without his leadership. If he is successful, he must help those with whom he works learn to learn.

The *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (drawing on Dashiell's *Fundamentals of General Psychology*) has an excellent diagram and explanation of the process of learning to solve problems. It states:

Following Dashiell, we may schematize the problem situation and the process of adjustment to it (See figure below) as one in which the motivated organism (1) upon encountering an obstacle or difficulty (2) shows excess and varied activity (3) until one of the variant ways of acting (4) resolves the difficulty and results in the attainment of the goal (5).



Upon again encountering the situation, or one similar to it, the adequate response (4) recurs in less time, with less excess and irrelevant activity, or with some one of the other characteristics which lead to more adequate satisfaction of the motivating conditions. Thus the learning process is primarily a matter of the discovery of the adequate response to a problem situation and the fixation of the satisfying situation-response relationship.¹

¹From *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, p. 670. Copyright 1950 by The Macmillan Company. Based on John F. Dashiell, *Fundamentals of General Psychology*, pp. 35-36. Copyright 1937 by Houghton Mifflin Company. Used by permission.

Problems for the Educational Leader

Presumably, if a leader followed the steps indicated in the diagram, he would motivate those with whom he works, see that they were confronted by a problem situation, and encourage them to try out solutions until one was found which enabled them to reach their goal. In fact, many practices in administration have been based on such a conception of the process of learning. But the following points should be noted as problems in the administrative use of knowledge about learning.

First, ambivalent feelings toward the administrator will be created. The intervention of a problem situation between the learner and his goal is, by definition, frustrating. This is both good and bad. If there were no frustration, there would be no increase in tension. No excess and varied behavior would occur. There would be no learning. On the other hand, frustration produces aggression which may not be wholly or even partially directed toward solution of the problem situation. It may be directed against scapegoats, the leader, or some other object or person or idea. It is most likely to be directed against the leader if he is perceived as responsible for the frustrating circumstances. He will be so perceived if he has motivated the group and confronted them with a problem situation. When this occurs, they will tend not to like him. On the other hand, if he is the person who helps them reach their goal by assisting them in the solution of a problem situation, then they will tend to like him. Whenever the leader motivates a group toward a goal, confronts them with a problem situation which must be solved before the goal can be reached, and then assists them in solving it, he creates feelings toward him which are a mixture of liking and disliking.

Second, there are differences between learning outcomes in individual and group situations. The diagram and description are intended to describe the process by which an individual learns to solve a problem. They are not intended to describe the way in which a group learns to do this. It is true that there is no such thing as group learning apart from that of the individuals who make up the group. But what the individuals do, and so learn, when they work as members of a group solving a problem, is different in kind and degree from what they learn as individuals in solving the same problem without the aid of others. In the group situation it is important to the members to learn to work as a group in addition to learn-

ing to solve the problem at hand. The difficulty in a group learning situation, arising through the conflict between solution of the problem at hand and maintenance and improvement of the group process, should be considered.

It may well happen that the leader of such a group ranks higher than the other members in the quality of his intelligence, in his ability to project possible ways of acting toward the goal of the group, and in his ability to select the way that shows greatest promise of success. What he suggests works most of the time. The group will then rely on him more and more. Under these conditions, what is learned is autocracy, probably benevolent in character at the start, and not democracy. This situation does not develop a sense of the equality of man, but a sense of the superiority of the leader and the inferiority of those led. If carried on for long periods of time, it may lead to a complete cessation of excess and varied behavior on the part of the members of the group. They will then have learned thoroughly that the leader will tell them the right act to perform. And not only is this antipathetic to a democratic value system; it also retards and often prevents the learning of learning so essential in a culture that cherishes those values.

Adaptive behavior is increasingly necessary in a society continuously improving, for each improvement is a change. Learning to make adaptations, to seek to find better adjustments to existing situations, to discover better solutions to problems—this is what is meant by learning to learn. These behaviors do not occur when there is too great reliance on the leader. This unfortunate degree of reliance is learned by members of groups as they attempt to solve problems under the conditions of even benevolent autocracy. It is not learned by individuals who solve problems by themselves. The group must learn not only to solve the problem at hand but to utilize to the fullest extent the resources available in the membership of the group, to select individuals for specific tasks of importance to the group, to accord prestige and status to individuals who contribute to the solution of the problem by the group without solving the problem for the group. These kinds of learnings can be accomplished only in groups.

Third, there may be differences in the goal of the leader and the goal or goals of the group because of differences in roles and of the process of learning. The leader is more likely to be concerned with the establishment of desirable ways of behaving, whereas the group members or learners may be concerned with the rewards obtained or penalties avoided through such behavior. The leader continuously seeks to develop group concern for

improvement in the democratic process, but this improvement is realized as the process achieves for group members other desirable ends. Group members may have such specific goals as the improvement of the salary schedule, a change in the school calendar, a modification of the school curriculum, a knowledge of what goes on at board meetings, a reduction of current public criticism of the school program. As a member of the group the leader may also desire these same specific ends, but he has the further goals of improving the group process and of better coordination of the activities of this group with those activities and interests of all other groups concerned with the schools. The leader should recognize that these additional goals which he seeks, in terms of the behavior patterns of those with whom he works, are acquired most rapidly when they become the means by which people reach ends important to them.

Fourth, no adequate theory of the influence of the teacher on the learner nor of the leader on the group process has been developed. The theory of learning presented above has been derived largely from the observation of individuals in situations where they were neither under instruction nor under leadership. It is a theory of the way in which individuals learn when they confront problem situations on their own. It is unwise to assume that persons either do or do not learn in the same way without instruction or leadership that they learn with them. There have been few investigations of the effect of instruction or leadership in the process of learning. It may be that the process remains the same. It may be that it is markedly altered. We do not yet know.

Fifth, there is need for more adequate explanation of the difference between excess and random behavior on the part of the individual and that of a group. There is marked disagreement among psychologists about the nature of the excess and varied behavior carried on by the individual while attempting to solve the problem situation. One school, perhaps the largest, holds that it is trial and error. The other group holds that each response comes from insight into the whole situation and is an attempt to solve it. The reason for failure is incomplete insight. The writers hold the second point of view, not only because they believe that better evidence supports it, but also because they have seen hundreds of children solve problems quickly, and with practically no trial and error, when they understood what the problem was and how it might be solved. The idea of insight is the only one that seems to make sense in such situations.

Insight, if it does exist, is a characteristic of individuals and not of groups. But a group will frequently solve a problem quicker than will an

individual. This appears to result from the combination of partial insights of several members. This combination is possible when the members of the group communicate their ideas about what might be done, and some among them fit the suggestions together to produce the complete insight needed to find the solution.

The educational leader seeks most eagerly to develop the insight that some goals can be achieved only by continued learning. Individuals with such insight discover that continued learning is one of the best means of adjusting to the culture. The ones who have become able to do this have not only learned, but have been aware that learning was itself a response which could achieve goals they could not reach in any other way. They have perceived the relationship between improving their ability to learn and becoming mobile in the culture, becoming leaders in a group, securing promotions in a career, and successfully carrying on many other important activities of life. The educational leader needs to perform his functions in such a way that the groups with which he works also acquire these abilities to learn.

What Is to Be Learned?

The public school system is a democratic institution, usually controlled by a freely elected board to which an executive is responsible. It is established primarily to induct the young into adulthood in such a manner that the way of life based upon the fundamental assumptions of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution will be preserved and improved. Throughout this book it has been held that administration of American schools is a responsibility and function of the whole citizenry. As this responsibility is borne through concern and participation, both faith in and practice of democratic principles are strengthened. The educational leader is more than a technically trained professional operating a school program under public direction—he must also be concerned with the strengthening and improvement of democratic behavior through increasing both the quality and quantity of participation in school administration.

There are many definitions of democracy. Each is based on a set of assumptions that is, in some respects, distinct from those that underlie the others. Except for the intentional perversion of the term by the communists and occasional fascists, the differences in definition are usually subtle and peripheral. It is beyond the purpose of this volume to

attempt to refine the definition of democracy. The one used in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* will suffice:

Democracy is a form of government based upon self rule of the people and in modern times upon freely elected representative institutions and an executive responsible to the people; and a way of life based upon the fundamental assumption of the equality of all individuals and of their equal right to life, liberty (including the liberty of thought and expression), and the pursuit of happiness.²

Democracy is more than a form of government. It is a way of life. The process by which people can work together in order to solve problems and accomplish goals has been labeled distinctively by Alfred Simpson of the Graduate School of Education at Harvard University. He was the first to use the term "Participatory Process." Those behaviors of persons that are most conducive to the participatory process can be listed. The following list was prepared by a group of teachers after careful study and research:

1. They respect the individual personality.
2. They consider the rights of others.
3. They coöperate with others.
4. They use their talents both for individual and social profit.
5. They discover and accept their own inadequacies and improve upon them if possible.
6. They lead or follow according to their abilities for the benefit of the group.
7. They assume responsibilities inherent in the freedom of a democracy.
8. They solve their problems by thinking them through rather than by resorting to force and emotions.
9. They govern themselves for the common good.
10. They accept the rule of the majority while respecting the rights of the minority.
11. They are tolerant.
12. They speak, think, and act freely, with due regard for the rights of others.
13. They adapt themselves to changing conditions in a democracy for individual and common good.
14. They are constantly seeking to achieve the most effective democratic way of living.
15. They seek by their own example to lead other persons to live democratically.³

² *Encyclopaedia Britannica* (1947), Vol. 7, p. 182. Used by permission of Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc.

³ Willard B. Spalding and William C. Kvaraceus, "What Do We Mean by Democracy?" *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 108 (February, 1944), p. 50. Used by permission.

If each new generation is to acquire these modes of behavior in a democracy, they must be learned. They are not an American birthright which comes to fruition merely by breathing American air. They must be acquired by the individual precisely as arithmetic, reading, ability to play football, or any other useful behavior is acquired. The best way to learn a process is to use it with success in important activities. In the long run, those individuals and those groups will become most skilled in the democratic process who have the greatest opportunity to practice this behavior in many situations. In the improvement of the democratic process all are learners—teachers, pupils, board members, parents, non-parents, status leaders. In Chapter 8 the democratic pattern of school organization by which decisions are made and executed was described. People must understand such a pattern if they are to practice the skills involved. Of course, practice, of itself, is not enough. The doer should understand and believe in the principles he uses as he acts. He should have faith in the philosophical and ethical principles consistent with the ideal of democracy.

The Participatory Process⁴

Whenever the personnel of a school system have been organized in accordance with the criteria of democracy and the laws of learning, there have been certain common procedures. Individuals have been given responsibilities along with opportunities to act freely. Employees have been encouraged to work together to improve their lot and to work with other persons to improve the schools. They have had a voice in setting up the procedures by which policy in the school system is to be executed. They have, in short, participated in the many activities that affect them.

This participation is made possible by specific planning based on the dictates of humanitarianism and justice as well as on the principles by which learning takes place. It is this latter consideration that is neglected by those who solve their problems by formulas of expediency rather than of basic science. If the members of a school system are to learn how to behave as responsible members of a group, how to avoid difficulties in democratic interaction, how to develop procedures for executing policy, how to share in the development of policy, or how to settle differences amicably, then such learning is possible only by following the methods psychology has found effective.

⁴ See Spalding, "Organizing the Personnel of a Democratic School System," Chapter IV, Forty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.

The participatory process can be defined as the aggregate of those activities carried on by persons who seek to solve problems by coöperative methods, according to principles in line with the way in which man learns and including the specific behaviors of a democratic people. This process, as its use is encouraged by the administrator, develops more resourceful persons than do other procedures. Each person who participates with others in the solution of problems—problems that bother the group as a whole—acquires skill in the use of methods of solution which can be employed on other occasions with profit to himself and to the schools. He also develops a sensitivity to the existence of problems previously beyond the scope of his experience and will seek to solve them through coöperative interaction with others similarly aware of them. As present problems are cleared up, as new problems are discovered and solved, and as the practice employees have in solving problems continues to increase their competence in this work, the school system improves rapidly and becomes dynamic.

Steps in Group Action to Solve Problems

1. The group discusses whatever is bothering the individual members. These problems may be as small as the concern of a citizen because his sidewalk is not properly cleared of snow. They may be as great as the deprivation of citizens of their rights because of their race, color, or creed. They may be problems of any sort. A problem is distinguished by its primary characteristic—that some one is bothered by it. Unless this condition exists, there is no problem. The process begins when an individual is bothered by something and wishes to improve the situation so that he will no longer be bothered. The discussion may be desultory, if there are no burning issues. It will become vigorous if there are some members who are seriously concerned and able to convince others that they should become concerned.

In a democracy, a person who is bothered has the right to talk about what bothers him to anyone whom he can get to listen. He has the right to write about it to anyone. He has the right to publish it and distribute his publications to the people. He is restrained only by the laws against slander, libel, distribution of obscene literature, and inciting people to disturb the peace. All these laws have usually been interpreted broadly by the courts in order to preserve the fundamental rights of freedom of expression.

Within the various groups available to him, the person bothered by a problem tries to get others concerned about the same problem.

There are four common techniques by which this has been accomplished: propaganda, pressure, fear, and information. Sometimes combinations of all or part of these have been successful. By propaganda is meant the continuous reiteration of the facts (if there are any), or of what can be made to seem like facts, in such manner that people are led to make decisions without being fully acquainted with the situation. They become concerned about a problem only because it is constantly thrust before them, often in very subtle ways. Pressure is produced only rarely by an individual. It consists of getting persons in positions of power or influence to urge or compel others to become concerned about situations. Fear comes when people are led to believe that failure to become concerned about an issue will lead to dire consequences for them. The procedure most nearly in accord with the philosophical principles of democracy is that of providing full information to as many persons as possible. If *all* of the facts warrant it, then people who know them will become concerned.

2. The discussion eventually centers around a problem or a small cluster of related problems. This takes place as members of the group find areas of common concern or of pressing importance.

3. The group selects a problem it wishes to solve.

4. The problem is defined as precisely as possible with present knowledge. In the process of definition, the group seeks to examine all the facts pertinent to the problem available to any of the members.

5. Possible solutions are suggested, and examined critically.

6. Questions are raised about these solutions.

7. Committees or individuals are chosen to get answers to the questions.

8. Reports are made to the group.

9. The proposed solutions are examined, and the ones that look best are proposed more strongly.

10. The criteria for a good solution are established through such discussion and examination.

11. The proposed solutions are re-examined in the light of the criteria.

12. One proposal is selected for use. But the group may not have the power nor the authority to put the solution into action. This power is vested in the whole people, who delegate specific portions of it to officers, boards, legislative bodies, and executives.

13. The next step is to bring the proposed solution before the appropriate agency in order that it may be put into practice. This should be done in such a way that all people are informed about the proposed solution and understand why it seems to be a good one. The four techniques of propaganda, pressure, fear, and information have all been used in order to get those with power to make decisions favorable to the proponents of a particular point of view. Usually, it is the last of these that is used by people who have full faith in the wisdom of informed people. The other procedures are used most often by people who lack this faith or who seek ends which they know would not be acceptable to an informed people.

14. The agency with power to decide and act holds widely advertised hearings at which the people may appear and present the facts, ideas, and arguments for or against the proposed solution. If the problem is thoroughly understood, better solutions may be proposed at the hearing. In any event, the whole people to whom the agency is responsible should have the opportunity to express themselves fully.

15. The agency with authority then makes a decision in respect to the proposed solution to the problem. It may reject it, in which case the right of appeal to a higher agency should exist. It may modify it if there have been better solutions suggested at the hearing. It may adopt the proposal. In either of the last two instances it refers its decision to its executive officer.

16. The executive has the authority to put the proposed solution into action. In doing this he will need to lead others, to direct others, and occasionally to order others. He must understand fully the will of the people as expressed by the agency to which he is responsible and seek to realize this will in a plan for action. If he believes fully in the democratic process, he will encourage those who work under his leadership to participate in planning ways of implementing the proposed solution. But they do not change the nature of the solution. Decisions about its nature should be made only by those in whom the people have vested authority.

Participation in making decisions about the procedures for executing policy should not become participation in establishing policy. This does not mean that employees should not take part in the latter process. If they are good citizens, they will do so often, but only by appearing before appropriate agencies with argument and information which may convince them that new policy is needed. Employees of democratic institutions should have too much faith in democracy to change policy by the way in which they execute it.

17. After the proposed solution has been put into effect by democratic executive action, the people will wish to know the quality of the results. There must be continuous evaluation of results if there is to be continuous wise action. The findings about the degree of success or failure should be reported fully to the agency which made the decisions and, by it, to the people. Again, the employees should be encouraged to participate in planning the procedures for evaluation. Such procedures should always consider such questions as: What did the people expect the policy to accomplish? To what extent did it do or fail to do this? What reasons underlie success or failure? What improvements can be made?

18. Any proposal for improvement, or for elimination of policy as the result of careful evaluation, should be subjected to the same careful scrutiny and the same public analysis at a widely advertised hearing as was the original policy decision. Within the democratic process there should be no changes in policy through administrative fiat or arbitrary action by a power agency.

Any particular group may shortcut these procedures. A frequent shortcut is that of moving directly from step five to step twelve. If the decision is one that concerns only the deciding group, the solution will be implemented by that group without referral to other constituted authority.

Democratic attitudes and the use of the participatory process for solving the problems of the group are to be learned. As they are used within the school and as they are used by the community in the public administration of the school, the practice of democracy throughout other aspects of life will be improved and extended.

How the Leader Encourages Learning

In the process of learning the participatory process, the educational leader has a role distinct from that of other members of the groups with which he works. In the discussion of problems of the educational leader related to the use of knowledge about the learning process, it was pointed out that the goal of the leader and the goal of the group are somewhat different. The leader always has the goal, among others, of increasing the skill of the group in carrying on the participatory process. But this skill will be learned only as it is repeatedly successful in reaching goals important to the group. This difference in goals is one of the factors that set the leader apart from those responsible to him, even when he is chosen

by the group. It operates even more strongly to set him apart when he is a status leader who has been placed in his position by authority essentially outside the group.

The leader maintains a greater consistency in his goal than do the members of the group. He accepts with the group the specific problems the members wish to solve, but he also persists in his desire to improve the process by which the group operates. The problem of the group is whatever prevents them from reaching their goal. If the goal is higher salaries, the problem may be how to convince a board of education to vote them, how to get people to vote higher taxes, or how to get fellow employees to refuse to work for low pay. Solving any of these problems through the participatory process will tend to improve the skill of the group in that process. But the problems can be solved by other and less democratic means. The group may seek such other means, and when they do, their procedures toward the group goal come into conflict with the persistent goal of the leader. The leader's problem is that of overcoming the obstacles which impede him in leading the group to use the desired procedures for solving problems. And the obstacles tend to be about the same. In other words, the problem of the leader, when he seeks to get a group to improve their skill in working together, changes very little.

Since the leader has a dual goal, (1) getting the job done and (2) getting it done in the right way, he also differs from the group in terms of what constitutes success. For the group, success is achieving whatever goal is before them. For the leader, success must also include having the group achieve the goal in the desired way. Success in solving a problem has an important effect upon the solver. He has been motivated toward a goal and, when the goal is reached, motivation is reduced. Because of the physiological and psychological changes that come with the reduction of motivation, people feel better when they have been successful.

It may frequently happen that the group will experience reduction in motivation through reaching its goal by processes which are not participatory, which are undemocratic, and which, if learned, will tend to destroy rather than improve the group process. They will have the good feelings which go with success; but the leader will not have reached his goal, that of participation by the group, and his motivation will not be reduced. He will be driven to action when the group is not motivated for action. He will be more likely to seek additional problem situations with which the group should be concerned than will other members of the group.

Another condition which sets the leader apart from the group is his selection by an authority outside of the group. This is particularly true of status leaders (see Chapter 20). Because such leaders often come from other groups and from distant communities, they are not initially part of those with whom they work. Because of the factors inherent in the process of learning, it is difficult for them to become part of the group of individuals with whom they work. The status leader will always be, to some extent, the boss's man rather than a genuine member of a group on equal standing with other members.

The role of the leader in encouraging learning is affected greatly by these conditions. In many ways he is set apart from the group in the way that a teacher is set apart from his students. Like the teacher he seeks to have others learn because of what he does. The good leader is usually a master teacher. As a teacher he is concerned with directing learning and counseling the learners. In his position as executive agent of the community, through its board of education, for the operation of the schools, he directs or guides the learning activities of those for whom he is responsible and counsels them that they may learn better. He is thoroughly familiar with the steps of the participatory process listed above. He wishes all of these steps to occur as any of the groups with which he works confronts a problem situation. This process needs to be learned if the group members are to improve in effectiveness in working together.

Although much has been written about learning theory and much about teaching methodology, very little has been established, through research, which relates teaching to learning theory. One of the significant articles dealing with this relationship is by H. A. Carr.⁵ In it Carr points out that putting the learner through the situation under guidance is not enough to produce learning. Repetition of the desired response under the direction of the leader (teacher) will not produce learning. Such repetition actually amounts to limiting the excess and varied behavior to one response. Yet active seeking for the correct response and individual discovery of it are important parts of learning. So it is important for the educational leader to keep his influence out of the learning situation as much as possible. When he does enter it, always at a relatively late stage in the search for an adequate solution, he seeks to encourage the group to discover and try more responses, rather than to tell them which response will work. His

⁵ H. A. Carr, "Teaching and Learning," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, Vol. 30 (1930), pp. 189-218.

expertness should be more an expertness in the search for than in the discovery of solutions to problems.

This is a reasonable point of view, for the goal of the leader is that of having the people with whom he works become more skilled in the participatory process. This process is a way of seeking for a solution to a problem; it is not the solution to a problem. If the leader always remembers that his goal is the improvement of the ability of the group to carry on a process, then he will become an expert in this process and so be less inclined to be expert in finding solutions.

As the educational leader works with those whom he leads, he observes what they are doing and endeavors to understand the reasons for their actions. Through empathy he attempts to feel their attitudes and emotions. He is alert to the ebb and flow of enthusiasm. He notes the play of personality upon personality. In so far as he is able, he comes to know, feel, and understand the complex interaction among people which occurs as they attempt to work together to a common end.

His role in relation to each of the eighteen steps in the solution of a problem by a group is relatively constant. If the process is unfolding with reasonable accuracy, he takes little part, participating enough to establish relationships, but never at a critical step. When the process is not moving along, then he must participate in a different manner and at critical stages. But, even then, his participation is not similar to that of others. Each time he must be sure to increase the amount of excess and varied behavior. This he can do by asking questions which will secure more good ideas from others.

The leader must be on guard against a common pitfall. If he suggests ways of acting which look good to him and which are better than those suggested by others—then, more often than not, the next step will come from him, or the solution may be suggested by him. As next steps or final solutions are suggested by the leader, the group will learn to wait for him to speak. They will not seek actively for better ways of doing, for they will have learned that these better ways come from the leader. On the one hand, the group will be taught that authoritarian answers are better than those arrived at by democratic interaction. On the other hand, the leader who seeks for democratic interaction has created a situation that frustrates him in his search for that goal.

Waiting for a group to act is not easy. The tensions increase as the importance of the problem to the improvement of the schools increases.

Whenever the problem is of critical importance, it is the unusual leader who can refrain from telling what to do at essential steps in the search for a solution. As one who has a larger share of responsibility for the success of the educational program than most others, he will be motivated very strongly. And when this happens, he can come closer to being an equal member of the group than on other occasions. He can do this, not because of the urgency of the problem, but because, to a large extent, his goal has become modified by the existence of a second important goal. While he will still wish to lead others in such a way that they learn more skills in participating, he will also be seeking, with them, to find an answer to a problem that bothers all.

In this situation he is usually as ignorant of good solutions as anyone else. His suggestions will not be any better than others. In fact, they may well be worse if others have been dealing more than he with problems similar to the one under consideration. If he has established the kinds of attitudes toward him as leader that will enable the others to reject any and all ideas or to accept them solely on their merit, no matter what their source, then he can take part more readily and without great danger that he will destroy the process he is trying to teach.

One good way to make sure that the leader does not have too great status in situations of this type is to have a "leader of the process of problem solving" chosen by the group. This puts another person in an important role and may enable the status leader to escape from some of the implications of his status and their effect upon the processes of participation. Even this procedure requires a word of warning. It is also possible that such a procedure, if taken with a group that has not yet learned to value ideas rather than the source of ideas, will enable the status leader to have greater influence on the solution chosen than he would if he remained as the presiding officer. It is wise to be overcautious. Only when the leader can be sure that his participation as one of the members of the problem-solving group, other than presiding leader, will enhance the participatory process and that his contributions in such a role will be taken for their own value, should he encourage the selection of another member by the group to serve as chairman.

In general, the role of the leader as he encourages learning is that of holding back, of doing little, when the participatory process is moving along in a satisfactory manner. When it is not moving along, he endeavors to assist in the process, and not in the solution, of the problem with which

the group is working. He seeks to encourage the search for more and better ways of behaving whenever the problem solvers are carrying on excess and varied behavior. He seeks to encourage the development of democratic self-reliance. He seeks to avoid the development of authoritarianism. In all that he does and says he endeavors to use his knowledge of the laws of learning, his skill in the participatory process, and his faith in democratic principles to further the scope of democratic interaction in his school system.

The Local Public School as the Custodian of Democracy

The encouragement of the growth and spread of the process of democratic interaction is a main function of the school; therefore, it is a main function of the educational administrator. This great function is not carried on by the public school as a vast amorphous institution stretching across the nation in a hundred different forms. It is carried out by the public school as a local institution, serving a neighborhood and a community—an institution close to and influenced by the people who live near it and whom it serves. As it helps these people to improve the ways in which they work together to achieve common ends, it is improving democracy. And there is no other institution that can do this.

But the school as an institution has no influence on people except as it exerts such influence through the individuals whom it employs. It is only as each teacher, each custodian, each secretary, each principal, and each superintendent keeps faith with the American Ideal that the school has a uniform influence. Whenever any person identified with the school acts as if he did not have this faith—or acts in opposition to it—to that extent the school has failed in a great purpose. Whenever he acts to increase and improve democratic interaction, the school has to that extent succeeded.

It is doubtful if there are many acts of people who work in the schools that have no effect upon the democratic process. This is why the role of the leader in encouraging the growth of democracy within the school is such an important one. Unless and until the employees of the schools have learned, through the experience of using the democratic process, that democracy works in getting problems solved, they will not have complete faith in it. And men of little faith secure few converts. Unless they have become skilled in the participatory process, they will not be able to teach

others to use it, even though they do have faith in it. But their faith will lead them to try, and oftentimes to try without success. These failures teach some people that democracy is inefficient—that it will not work when the chips are down or the going is rough. Some of these people conclude that authoritarianism is the only answer to difficult problems. And this is dangerous doctrine.

Unless schools can teach that democracy is more than a fair-weather craft, the ship of state will have a rough trip in the years just ahead of us. The nation will be torn deeply between those who have faith in the worth of the individual and his ability to choose the good, the right, the true, the just, and the beautiful and those who have faith in the great leader who tells the rest what is good, or right, or true, or just, or beautiful. This strife we cannot afford.

So the local public school must see itself as the primary custodian of democracy, as the institution through which all the people can learn to resolve conflict by extending the area of agreement; through which all can attain a deep faith in the sanctity of the individual personality and in the ability of free men to make good and wise decisions; and through which the democratic process itself can be continuously extended and improved. As it does this, it preserves the heritage of principles which are the American Ideal. It produces a more nearly stable society by reducing the number of alternatives and increasing the number of universals at the core of our culture. The school administrator is the status leader to whom communities have entrusted local educational leadership. He, more than any other person, can assist the school in achieving its destiny.

Suggested Reading

J. E. Baker, "Leadership—A Modern Concept for the School Administrator," *School Executive* (October, 1949). A good but brief discussion. The author builds upon ideas of Mary Parker Follett and George de Huozar, making them over to apply directly to educational administration. Most important, the author recognizes the need for reformulation of the basic conceptual framework in this area.

L. J. Brueckner, "Raising the Level of Democratic Coöperation," *Educational Leadership* (December, 1947). Contains two pages of selected and categorized references on the topic.

Lawrence E. Cole and William F. Bruce, *Educational Psychology*. Part Two includes a discussion of growth and learning. Part Three is concerned with theories of the learning process.

G. C. Homans, *The Human Group*. States some challenging hypotheses about small groups. These are drawn from the careful analysis of groups that range from an industrial plant to a primitive culture. The best current presentation of a systematic but untested theory.

H. C. Metcalf and L. Urwick (Editors), *Dynamic Administration; the Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follett*. Miss Follett's essays on fundamental issues of power and responsibility are included in this collection. Mary Follett is far and away the most provocative and deep-going thinker in this field. Her command is as wide as it is deep.

National Training Laboratories in Group Development, *Report of the Second Summer Laboratory Session*. For five years now a group of social scientists, educators, and community leaders have met for self-training, research, and practice in the problems of group development. All five reports are valuable especially for their bibliographies and suggestive nature.

"Role of the Status Leader in Group Work," *Educational Leadership* (February, 1949). Of use more because of how it came to be written than because of its particular content. It records the progress in thinking and action of a small group of instructional leaders at Wayne University. These people carried on some self-critical inquiry into what they thought and knew of group leadership. It may help similar groups to get under way.

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